The Nation.

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The Week.

THE most important business which Congress is transacting nowadays is the construction of new States. During the past month the House of Representatives has passed bills providing for the admission of Wyoming and Idaho, and it seems a foregone conclusion that the Senate will concur as soon as the question comes up in that body. Practically, therefore, it is already settled that the Union will soon have two new members, the House two more members, the Senate four additional members, and the electoral college six more votes. There is not the slightest excuse for the admission of either of these Territories at the present time. The total vote of Wyoming in 1888 was only about 18,000, as against about 7,500 in 1880, when the whole population was 20,789; and there is no good reason to suppose that the number of inhabitants to-day exceeds 60,000. Idaho had 32,610 people in 1880, and the growth of her vote between 1880 and 1888 does not indicate a population of more than 100,000 now. There are, of course, all sorts of wild estimates and claims as to a much larger population in each Territory, but there is nothing substantial upon which to base them, and at best nobody supposes that the number of inhabitants in either Wyoming or Idaho comes anywhere near 151,912, which is the number of people required to secure one Representative in the House by the last apportionment.

Experience has given more than one warning against haste in this matter. Nevada was hurried into the Union as a State just before the Presidential election of 1864, upon claims as to the size of its population which proved gross exaggerations when the next census was taken. Its vote has fallen off a full third since 1880, when the whole number of people, including more than 5,000 Chinamen and Indians, was but 62,226; and it is doubtful whether there are to-day over 35,000 white people in the State. Yet these 35,000 have one Representative in the House, two Senators in the upper branch, and three votes in the Electoral College of 401 members. A year ago North Dakota was admitted as a State. It had been for years filling up with a population which was supposed to be remarkable for general intelligence and political morality. Yet the Legislature of this new State at its very first session was restrained with the utmost difficulty from passing an act under which the Louisiana-lottery swindle would have been guaranteed a new lease of life, now that its existence in Louisiana is almost ended. Except for the fact that the Governor of the State chanced to be an opponent of the scheme, the job would in all probability have been carried through, and North Dakota would have rewarded the old States for admitting her to their circle by offering an asylum to swindlers whom they will no longer harbor. Finally, the Idaho and Wyoming bills are pushed as Republican party measures. But, even from this point of view, it may be doubted whether admission would be good policy. The former gave only 1,747 Republican majority in 1888, and Wyoming but 2,894. Either one of them is liable to become a Democratic State within a few years, as each has been a Democratic Territory within a few years.

It requires close study of such a measure as the Ways and Means Tariff Bill to understand all its absurdities. For instance, one of the articles which appear on the dutiable list under the heading "Farm Products," is sugar of milk. This article in the present tariff is on the free list. Almost its sole use is in the form of the pellets used in the dispensation of homœopathic medicines, and as an excipient in such medicines as lacto-peptine, pepsine, etc. For these purposes from 200 to 250 tons are used annually in the United States. Almost the whole of this comes from Europe, the whey from Swiss cows yielding nearly twice as much sugar as that from cows in this country. But a few years ago a New Jersey milkman learned from a Swiss the process of making milk sugar, and began it on a small scale. Being also something of a politician, he "knew the ropes," and, going to Washington, he secured a "hearing," and the result is a proposal to tax the whole people of this country who use homœopathic medicines 10 cents a pound on the sugar used in these medicines, all for the benefit of a New Jersey milkman. The quinine tax was howled down even by protectionists because of its apparent burden on the many to enrich the few, but when we consider the number of persons who will make the profit out of this tax on a "dairy product," the quinine tax seems quite as justifiable. We do not, however, say that it is inconsistent with the rest of the bill. McKinley says his aim is to apply the protection principle. Sugar of milk gives him a fair opportunity.

The "staff correspondent" of the Philadelphia *Press* at Washington confirms the statement made by the *Evening Post* some time since that Secretary Blaine would propose reciprocity treaties with all the countries of Central and South America which might choose to join. "The suggestion," says this writer, "is, in effect, that the President shall, by proclamation, declare the ports of the United States free to all the products of any independent country on the American hemisphere on which no export duties are levied, so long as such nations admit free of all taxes breadstuffs, provisions, preserved meats, fish, vegetables, fruits, and in fact all articles of food, lumber, refined petroleum, and such other products of the United States as may be agreed upon; provided, however, that this concession shall apply only to merchandise transported in vessels of the United States or of other American countries entering into the agreement. Such is, in very nearly its exact terms, the suggestion informally made to the Ways and Means Committee, and likely to be put into writing within a few days." It is stated, also, that the Argentine Republic and Chili have withheld their assent to the proposition because they are convinced that the Congress of the United States will not consent to admit wool free of duty, and that they will not vote for a plan of reciprocity which manifestly cannot be carried into effect. The staff correspondent, on the other hand, thinks that there is a fair prospect that free wool from South America may be incorporated into the Ways and Means Tariff Bill before it is reported. We think it would be safer to wait until David Harpster and Judge Lawrence are heard from.

If the proposed duty on hides is due, as alleged, to Mr. Blaine's wonderful shrewdness in getting together the materials for chaffering with the Argentines, its reception by the latter will be rather painful to him. They have publicly declared that the imposition of such a duty would make trade with their country so impossible that they shall at once advise their Government to withdraw from the agreement to subsidize a line of steamers between the United States and Buenos Ayres, on the basis of a pro-rata payment by the several nations interested. It would appear, then, that they do not altogether relish the idea of this elaborate manœuvring right under their noses, for the sake of getting up some obstacles to Argentine exports that may be graciously waived for an equivalent favor shown to this country. At any rate, it will be a solemn warning to the band of faithful protectionists and subsidizers that they must all stand or fall together; the moment such a baleful thing as a reciprocity treaty is schemed for, away go the subsidies. We should not be much surprised, in fact, if this and other aspects of the Pan-American Congress should deepen and embitter their traditional hatred for everything foreign, and lead them to abandon for ever such entangling trade alliances, with a virtuous resolve to do their own taxing and bounty-giving independent of all the rest of the world.

The *Iron World* of Pittsburgh takes exception to a recent article of ours, in which the statement was made that if there had never been any duty on pig-iron in this country, there would probably have been "such a rapid development of the product of iron in Great Britain as to have led, many years ago, to the exhaustion of the fine ores and the coking coals which is now creating such alarm on that side of the water." The *Iron World* thinks that if this should meet the eye of the iron and coal-producers of Great Britain, they would be vastly amused, be-

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cause "the idea that the demand for iron in the past, or any demand that would have been possible under conditions that were at all probable, would have been sufficient to have exhausted the deposits of ores and coking coals in Great Britain, is too absurd for serious thought." The only thing that would amuse the iron and coal-producers of Great Britain more than our article would be an official report made by Joseph D. Weeks of Pittsburgh to the United States Geological Survey, on the Durham coal mines, the chief dependence of England for coke. This report was made in 1886. It pointed out the increasingly distressing conditions of coke production which must soon lead to an excessive cost of that indispensable article. Only four years have passed since Mr. Weeks made his report. And what do we find now? According to the *Iron World* of March 7, the present cost of the coke needed to make one ton of pig-iron in England is $9.31, against $3.24 in Pittsburgh. Whether Mr. Weeks was the editor of the *Iron World* in 1886 or not, we do not know, but we understand that he holds that chair at the present time. As to the rapid exhaustion of fine ores in Great Britain, the last report of the British Iron and Steel Institute contains ample evidence to sustain all that we said on the subject. The *Iron World* discovers that by a slip of the pen we spoke of the cost of pig-iron at the "mines" instead of at the furnaces, and it supplies the information that pig-iron is not dug out of the earth. That is valuable instruction, and we shall hope to profit by it.

Mr. Clarence A. Seward has prepared an opinion on the long-and-short-haul clause and the anti-pooling clause of the Inter-State Commerce Act, holding both to be unconstitutional. It will be remembered that it was by his advice that the Illinois Central refused to join the Inter-State Association a year ago, the ground being that a company could not legally delegate its rate-making powers to an association. Presumably upon request of the same railroad company, Mr. Seward has prepared the present opinion. In its broad features the principle advocated by Mr. Seward is the one laid down by the United States Supreme Court in the Minnesota cases, rendered after the opinion was written. It is that the question of the reasonableness of a railroad rate, or of a law affecting a rate, is a judicial one. A State legislature, and presumably Congress, cannot by arbitrary enactment take from a railroad its right to reasonable charges. Herein the Minnesota law was clearly wrong, in that it provided no machinery for determining such a question of reasonableness. The point urged against the Federal law is somewhat similar, but the analogy does not seem altogether applicable. Directly contrary to the Minnesota law, the Federal act says that the Commission shall investigate rate questions, shall hear both sides, and, after every precaution, shall render a decision. Such decision is not, however, conclusive, as the Minnesota Legislature tried to make the findings of its State Commission, but is *prima-facie* evidence before a court of law. This, it will be noticed, is almost exactly what the United States Supreme Court contends for, and at the same time is in line with the old Granger decisions. As far as this principle is consistently carried out in our present Federal law, apparently its constitutionality would stand a test. A railroad can, if it chooses, carry before a regular judicial tribunal any case decided against it by the Commission, but doubtless it would enter into such a contest with great odds against it.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the people of the State of New York vs. the Home Insurance Company is of considerable importance in the way of settling one of the vexed questions of taxation. The question before the court was whether a tax on the capital stock of a corporation is a tax on the franchise or a tax on the property and assets. The Court of Appeals of this State has held that it is a tax on the franchise. The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has held, in a parallel case arising under a similar law, that it is a tax on the property and assets. Now the Supreme Court of the United States holds, in a New York case, that it is a tax on the franchise. Would the same court hold, in a Pennsylvania case arising under a similar law, that it is not a tax on the franchise, but a tax on the property? It is a rule of the Federal Supreme Court, in the interpretation of the statutes of a State, to follow the latest settled decision of the highest tribunal of that State. There is some latitude in the use of the word "settled." The court did, in one case at least, overturn the decision of a State Supreme Court in the interpretation of a State statute, upon finding that the State Court had made two contrary decisions on the same subject-matter, whereupon it was held that the later decision could not be considered a settled decision. Aside from this merely technical phase of the Home Insurance Company's case, the decision is important in establishing the principle that corporations may be taxed in New York on their entire capital stock, without regard to the situation of the property (in this or in other States or foreign countries), and without regard to the kind of property (United States bonds, or whatever else it may be). State comity will suggest that the taxing power be limited to the amount of property actually employed within the State, as our laws do now limit it. But the decision establishes the legal power of this State to tax the Western Union Telegraph Co., for example, on the value of all its lines and plant in every part of the world.

The Indian Rights Association has issued a little pamphlet giving reasons against the proposed removal of the Southern Utes from their present reservation in Colorado. The whole subject simply presents the oft-repeated arguments of white men who now find the lands set apart for certain Indians the object of their own covetousness, and who, accordingly, are taking the usual means to dispossess the Indians of them. The reservation, they say, is too large; it is in the white men's way; the Indians make no progress, and are a burden to their white neighbors; the place to which it is proposed to remove them abounds in game, and is adapted to grazing, and the Indians are willing to move. The reply to all this is, that if the present lands of these Indians are allotted in severalty, they will no longer be an impassable boundary; that one reason why the Indians have not made more progress in civilization is because none of the latest treaty obligations with them have been carried out, leaving the Indians uncertain of their future; and that to place them in a wild region where they will have a temptation to live by the chase will be only still further to postpone their civilization, and subject them to a demand for another removal when the whites again catch up with them. With the little assistance these Indians have received from the Government, they have over 600 acres under cultivation, are learning the art of irrigation, have a school in operation, and give good promise of future advancement. But in the light of the past it is natural to expect that the Indians "must go," and the higher civilization of the boomer, in the shape of stolen claims, three-card monte, saloons, and revolvers, move in to dedicate the land to its new possessors. Such has been the story from the Atlantic westward.

All respectable authorities agree that the first trial of the new Ballot Law of Rhode Island in last week's election was a complete success. There was no trouble anywhere in the State save in the city of Pawtucket, where a slight delay and some uproar were caused by the illegal conduct of the local Democratic Boss, who happens also to be Mayor. He has been a bitter opponent of the law from the outset, and he naturally did his best to prevent its success in practice, but he was not able to accomplish much. He is one of the most unsavory politicians in the State, and rightly looks upon the law as a deadly enemy of his trade. Accounts from all parts of the State say that the election was the quietest and most orderly ever held there, that the usual gangs of "heelers" and "workers" about the polls were not to be seen, that the vote-buyers were thrown out of business, and that everybody was delighted with the new system. There was much delay in counting the vote, due mainly to unfamiliarity with the new form of ballot, and somewhat to the unusual size of the poll, desire to try the new system bringing out a very large vote. Reports from Missouri and Wisconsin, where the Australian system was tried for the first time in municipal elections on April 1, announce similarly successful results in all cases.

The recent municipal election in Milwaukee possessed a national interest because it turned, not upon any of the local issues which alone are appropriate to such a con-

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test, but upon a question of general concern to the country—whether education in the English language shall be required in the schools of a State. The Wisconsin Legislature, at its last session, passed, as our readers are aware, what has come to be known as the Bennett law, the vital feature of which was this provision: "No school shall be regarded as a school under this act unless there shall be taught therein, as part of the elementary education of children, reading, writing, arithmetic, and United States history in the English language." The measure attracted no especial attention during the two months that it was pending, and passed each branch almost without opposition. The Germans, however, soon wakened to a perception of the fact that it involved interference with the parochial schools, to which both the Roman Catholics and the Lutherans largely send their children, and the authorities of both these churches sedulously cultivated the spirit of opposition which soon arose. The first skirmish in this fight took place on April 1 and resulted in a victory for the alliance of the Roman Catholic and the Lutheran Church influence with the Democratic machine, which elected its entire ticket by a large majority, although Milwaukee is usually a Republican city. The Democratic managers were already much disposed to make the Bennett law the chief issue in the State contest next fall, when a Governor and a Legislature which will choose a United States Senator are to be elected; and they will now feel confident of equal success in this wider field.

Last year there was a breeze in the political circles of the State of Kansas caused by the suspicion that Prof. Canfield of the State University was not sound on the doctrine of protection. This suspicion became an acknowledged fact after it was inquired into by the faithful regents, and an attempt was made to get rid of Prof. Canfield, or rather to prevent him from being elected Chancellor of the institution, a vacancy in that office having occurred. Three of the five regents were so much disturbed by the prospect that Mr. Canfield's remarkable talents would carry him into the Chancellorship despite his laxity on the tariff question, that they went in great haste to Minneapolis and offered the Chancellorship to the Rev. Mr. Thwing of that city; and in order to make sure of his acceptance of it they added $2,000 to the salary of the office. Mr. Thwing declined the offer, and it was afterwards found out that he also was unsound on the tariff question, being in perfect agreement with Prof. Canfield on that question. Then the laugh was turned on the pilgrim regents. The Chancellorship question is still unsettled, and is now pressing for solution. The Republican politicians, including the Governor of the State, are fighting hard against Canfield. The latter has nothing to commend him except his superior qualifications for the position; and since such men do not grow on every bush, the State is hard put to it to decide the question either way. The difficulties are enhanced by the fact that everybody who is fit for the place agrees with Canfield on the tariff question. If we must have a heretic, why not take Canfield and have done with it?

Choate, the *World* reporter who secreted himself in the Flack jury-room, has been indicted by the Grand Jury for criminal contempt of court under section 143 of the Penal Code, tried, and sentenced to the penitentiary, which will be a salutary thing both for him—for it will certainly have a beneficial effect upon him in after life—and for other young men who are now in the schools of "advanced journalism." The *World* endeavors to rid itself of all responsibility for him by saying that Choate was never instructed by his employers to do what he did, and that the "act was his own, and that there was no collusion or understanding with anybody connected with the *World*." But the *World* accepted the results of his act as its own, and expressed its heartiest approval by printing on the following day, most conspicuously on its first page, his own account of his misdeed, under the title: "With the Flack Jury—A *World* Reporter Listens to Their Talk for Two Hours." That was "collusion" after the act if it was not before. The editor who now throws the reporter overboard and washes his hands of all responsibility for his offence, did not think of doing so on the day after it was committed, and did not feel ashamed of him till he discovered that other people regarded his act as contemptible.

The simple fact is, that Choate, who is a young man, is a victim of the vicious school of journalism of which the *World* is the leading exponent. In the very next column to the report of the Grand Jury's finding in Choate's case, it announced that two prizes of $50 each, which it offered to its out-of-town correspondents for the best-written piece of exclusive news or "beat," had been awarded as follows: One to a correspondent who sent from North Dakota an account of the attempt of one man to shoot another; and the other to a correspondent in Pennsylvania who sent a "short but clear description of an attempted assassination of one brother by another." A school of journalism which bestows its prizes upon accounts of crimes discovered in remote corners of the land, must expect to find its own reporters committing crimes. What surer way for a man to get a "beat" which will draw a prize than to commit his own crime, as Choate did, and then tell his own story of it? Choate's imprisonment will do an incalculable amount of good in showing other pupils in the "school of journalism" which every "advanced" newspaper of to-day is keeping, that the penitentiary is the inevitable goal of the ethics which are taught there. A reporter in Buffalo has just distinguished himself by joining a gang of counterfeiters, and distributing their bogus money with them. That is only one step from joining a gang of burglars in "cracking" a bank, in order to get a "prize beat" of their doings.

The fate of Mr. Balfour's Land Bill seems to be already sealed. There is hardly a chance that it can be carried out. Lord Randolph Churchill's trenchant criticisms on it in the three letters he has been writing on it, appear to be taking firmer and firmer hold of the public mind as the measure receives more examination. It is a most complicated measure, but its main feature is the pledging of the credit of the British Government for $155,000,000 to enable the tenants to purchase the fee of such estates as the landlords are willing to sell, the money to be repaid by the tenants in instalments extending over forty-nine years. But, in aid of this, the grand jury of each county is to appropriate such amount of the county taxes as may be necessary to make good any default made by purchasing tenants in that particular locality. This part alone of the arrangement is sufficient to kill it. For, as no tenants can buy except those whose landlords are willing to sell, the majority of the county taxpayers might be persons who were deriving no benefit from the act whatever, and yet they would be taxed to pay debts incurred by other people under the act. Then there is the possibility, if not probability, pointed out by Lord Randolph Churchill, of repudiation on a great scale as soon as the Government came into direct contact with the tenants as a creditor, for to this end the exertions of the political leaders would undoubtedly be directed, and how the Government could meet it it is hard to say. Mr. Balfour's notion, as well as that of most Englishmen, who, like him, have hardly ever been in Ireland, and know little or nothing about the Irish, is that the home-rule feeling would subside if the land question were settled. No competent observers on the spot believe this for a moment. On the contrary, the more independent the farmers become, like those who have purchased under the Ashbourne Act, the more ardently do they throw themselves into the home-rule movement. The hatred of England and English ways and ideas in Ireland, aggravated by the insulting way of the present Ministry in dealing with Irish questions, is too deep-seated in Ireland to be eradicated by any one measure whatever, or, in fact, by anything but prolonged separation of administration. Ever since concessions first began to be made to the Irish, in 1830, it has been the expectation of English statesmen that each one would kill Irish discontent. The fact has been that the more the Irish got the more they have demanded. There is probably nothing which to-day does so much to aggravate the Irish trouble as English manners, which produce even a worse effect in Ireland than they have done in other parts of the world. The Dutch in Africa strikingly resemble the English in temperament and ideals, and belong to the same faith, but they hate them as bitterly as the Irish do, and with infinitely less reason.

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THE TARIFF SCRAMBLE.

THE spectacle which has been presented to the country since the unofficial publication of the Ways and Means Committee's tariff bill not only is calculated to give the general public some insight into "tariffs as they are made," but may serve to throw very instructive light upon two stock arguments bearing on the tariff question, one an anti-reform and the other a reform argument.

Whenever a measure of tariff-reduction is proposed, a great cry is raised of disturbance to established industries. Indeed, this cry contains about the only plea that has any real validity, which the advocates of our present tariff can urge. There are thousands upon thousands of voters who would not dream of advocating the imposition of the incongruous and monstrous pile of tariff taxes which we are now living under, if it were proposed as a new thing, but who are convinced that it is better to suffer it than run the risk of the disasters that might follow a disturbance of the established course of industry and trade. To how great an extent this thoughtful and honest body of men hold the balance of power in the present condition of parties, it may be difficult to determine; that their number is very considerable cannot be disputed.

What are these men to think of the security to established interests which the present régime affords, when they see the manufacturers of leather goods and the silk-manufacturers rushing to Washington in dismay at the danger with which their protectionist guardians threaten them? Hides were put on the free list in 1872 by a Republican and protectionist Congress. The manufacturers of shoes and other leather goods have adjusted their business upon a basis of free hides. Nobody has ever pretended that the abolition of the duty on hides caused any considerable hardship to anybody. And now, suddenly, without any change in industrial conditions, without any public agitation, without the assignment of any principle of action, the Committee on Ways and Means propose the reimposition of a duty on hides, to the consternation of the manufacturers, who, if they had a right to expect stability in anything, had a right to expect it in the case of a raw material which had remained eighteen years on the free list, and had been put there by a protectionist Congress. The silver-lead smelters, the rope-makers, the cigar-makers, the carpet-manufacturers are in much the same case, and that of the canners and other users of tin plates is still more outrageous. Who can tell how many small canning establishments, employing in the aggregate thousands and thousands of hands, may have to be closed if the duty on tin-plate, already high, should be more than doubled, as is proposed? We shall not enter upon a discussion of special points; we are now only concerned in pointing out that here are six—and these are not all—important established industries crying out against the disasters that threaten them, not from a lowering of duties, but from a wanton imposition or increase of them, in pursuance of no demand outside of a lobby, for the benefit of industries which cannot claim that any circumstances injuriously affecting them justify a change, and, in the case of tin-plate at least, for the support of an industry which has as yet no existence.

It is at this moment doubtful what impression may be made upon our legislators by the emphatic protests of the great organized interests which are threatened by the proposed increase of duties. If Massachusetts were as doubtful a State as Connecticut, there can be no question that the shoe-men would be able to protect their interests against the assault of the ranch-men. The fortunes of war have been swaying from the one side to the other ever since the first rumor of the Committee's bill appeared. Not the most brazen apologist of our tariff system can pretend that the question with the Committee has been anything but a question of "pulls": the side that has the most complete command of "a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together," will win.

And this brings us to the other argument to which we alluded. If organized manufacturing interests—interests in whose behalf the tariff is instituted—find such difficulty in making head against injurious exactions, is it not plain that the great body of the people can make no impression at all upon tariff legislation, as long as it is dominated by the present ultra-protectionist spirit? It is of the very essence of this legislation for special interests that the general interest cannot get a hearing at all. If the shoe-men and the silk-men raise such a piteous cry when it is proposed to put a duty on their raw materials, how many hundreds of thousands of men, in scores of smaller industries, have been bearing like burdens in silence? We are not saying a word about the despised consumer. We are talking about producers, who are hampered in their production by the duties laid on wood and iron, and copper and chemicals, and dye-stuffs and salt, just as the shoe-men would be hampered by a duty on hides. If it was ever difficult to see the absolute hopelessness of the smaller and less organized interests securing fair consideration in the tariff scramble, the blindest must be convinced of it in following the history of this most recent phase.

And, after all, perhaps a word might be said as to the position of those whose interests are affected by the tariff chiefly through its enhancement of the cost of the articles of their consumption. They cannot, in the nature of the case, be as intensely interested in having the tariff reduced as the representatives of special interests are in having it raised. So familiar to our protectionist friends has the idea become that no interest is worth mentioning which does not send a delegation to Congress to insist upon its recognition, that actually it was seriously argued by a member of the House, in the tariff debate of 1888, that the duty on steel pens should not be reduced because the consumers of steel pens had not petitioned for relief! And this pernicious notion, so deeply planted in our tariff legislation since 1861, can never be got rid of except by a radical change of front on the tariff question. Tariff-reformers do not propose to smash the protected industries; we believe we are strictly accurate in saying that not a single important manufacture was threatened by the Mills bill with anything comparable to the injury which the Ways and Means Committee's first proposal as to hides would bring upon manufacturers of leather. But the Mills bill, and the whole movement inaugurated by Mr. Cleveland, do involve that radical change of front which is required in order to give a hearing to the people who have no chance in the present tussle of personal and party interests. No party will be either willing or able to undertake the destruction of the great interests that have grown up under the tariff; but the party of tariff reform is bound, by the very nature of its position, to consider the needs of the whole people first and the claims of special interests afterwards, while the present high-tariff party is irretrievably committed to the policy of dispensing favors to those who have the most, in votes or money, to offer in return.

THE TAMMANY SOCIETY.

ON Thursday last the *Evening Post* printed a collection of biographical sketches of the chiefs of Tammany Hall, constituting what has been called "the new Tammany that people know not of." All possible pains were taken to make it accurate, although, of course, in the case of men leading, as so many of these do, vicious subterranean lives, complete accuracy is difficult to attain, except when they get into the hands of justice and some episode in their career is described in court records. Moreover, a great deal in the history of these men which would be most useful in throwing light on their characters and aims, is absolutely unfit for the columns of a respectable newspaper. One consequence of this is, that many of the sketches present the hero of the tale in a much more favorable light than is justly his due. Moreover, twenty-eight of the Executive Committee whose memoirs appeared in the *Evening Post* are merely the picked men of Tammany—those who have made their way to the front by some display of energy or force, and thus have come under public observation. A similar exploration expended on the "General Committee," which numbers about 3,598 members—the largest committee in the world—would reach still lower depths, and produce much more repulsive results.

On this Executive Committee there is but one member who can be fairly called a man of education, and who has any professional or business relations whatever with the respectable portion of the community and pursues any decent calling. The rest live wholly on the city, and, when thrown out of its service by any turn in the political wheel of fortune, return to some disreputable occupation, such as liquor-dealing or gambling, or else are maintained by "divvies" wrung from men still in office. About nothing is Tammany more particular than the compulsory division of salaries and fees, so as to make the money go as far as possible among the Boys. Nearly

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every Tammany official has to divide with others his wages or his blackmail. The deputy sheriffs, for instance, had in some cases to divide their "extra compensation" with four persons, not including the "retaining fee" of thirty-five dollars a month paid to their "counsel," the learned and vivacious Cockran. Where the chiefs have large families, and the "divvies" are inadequate for their support, great pains are taken to quarter their relations on the municipal service. Their daughters or sisters are imposed as teachers on the School Trustees, and their sons get on the pay-rolls as "laborers" or "inspectors" or watchmen. In fact, the art of getting a living out of the city, as practised by Tammany men, is extremely complicated and abstruse, and can only be learned by actual practice in the Tammany ranks. It would furnish abundant materials for a large manual, and is full of amusing and ingenious surprises for any outsider who looks into it. What makes it all the more wonderful as a social phenomenon is, that nearly all those who practise it with most success are illiterate or ignorant men, who have never followed any regular calling. We presume Gilroy and Cockran and Purroy are the only members of the Executive Committee who can write an English note with any approach to correctness.

There is nothing very new about all this, but most of it seems to have been forgotten by the respectable portion of the New York public of both parties during the past year. It was very well known, during the Tweed and Kelly régime, that the Tammany Society had long ceased to be a political organization in any proper sense of that term—that is, an association for the spread of any particular set of political opinions, or for producing co-operation in anything that could be called political agitation. Political ideas utterly perished in Tammany thirty years ago, when Tweed got in the ascendant before the war. All interest in public questions of any description has been extinct in the organization. There is no pretence whatever of keeping it alive. None of the members occupy themselves with any legislation, except what creates salaried offices and contracts in this city, to be got hold of either by capture at the polls or "deals" with the Republican politicians here or in Albany. When such legislation has been successful, the only thing in connection with it which Tammany leaders consider is how the salaries shall be divided, and what "assessments" the places or contracts can stand. If any decent outsider could make his way into the inner conferences at which these questions are settled, he would hear, not grave discussion of the public interests, how to keep streets clean, or how to repave them, or how to light them, or how to supply the city with water, but stories of drunken or amorous adventure, larded freely with curious and original oaths, ridicule of reformers and "silk-stockinged" people generally, abuse of "kickers," and examination of the claims of gamblers, liquor-dealers, and pugilists to more money out of the public treasury. In fact, as we have had of late frequent occasion to observe, the Society is simply an organization of clever adventurers, most of them in some degree criminal, for the control of the ignorant and vicious vote of the city in an attack on the property of the taxpayers. There is not a particle of politics in the concern any more than in any combination of Western brigands to "hold up" a railroad train and get at the express packages. Its sole object is plunder in any form which will not attract the immediate notice of the police.

The nature and objects of the organization have acquired more importance during the past year than any year since Tweed's downfall, for two reasons. One is, that the way in which the "Big Four" got hold of the Mayoralty, the Commissionership of Public Works, and the Corporation Counsel's office last year, and succeeded in imposing themselves on the public as conscientious reformers and Tammany men of an entirely new type, shows that the organization has now in it, or behind it (more probably the latter), considerably more brains and dexterity than has been at its service for a long while, if ever. As illustrations of this we may mention, at the risk of boring our readers with an old story, the remarkable way in which public support was enlisted for their scheme of a World's Fair and their plan of rapid transit, each of which promised an enormous addition either to the prestige or the funds of the Society, and the curious social success achieved for a short time by the Mayor, in spite of his ignorance and vulgarity. The other reason is the greatly increased power lodged in the Mayor's hands since 1884 by the statute giving him the absolute power of appointment. We believed, as did most people at the time, that this act would impress the decent and intelligent voters of this city with the enormous importance of the Mayoral election, and the absolute necessity, therefore, of keeping out of the Mayoral chair any active Tammany politician, in good standing, by the union at municipal elections of all the industrious classes possessing real interest in the comfort, peace, and prosperity of the city. That this expectation was not fulfilled was doubtless due to Republican infatuation about the Presidential election in 1888. Anything to win the Presidency and "keep the party together" in the city, was their motto, and they accordingly put Erhardt in the field as "a running mate to Grant," to use "Johnny" Brodsky's happy simile. We cannot help believing, however, that we are all at this moment learning a great lesson, that the real nature of the Tammany organization is being brought home to the present generation in a way that will eventually work the deliverance of the city from this extraordinary menace both to liberty and property. What to call it one hardly knows. In fact, it is both a social and political novelty.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR TAMMANY?

It would be nearly as absurd to say that the Paris Commune was a fair specimen of what France can do in the way of self-government as (what Col. Hawkins contends in a letter to the *Evening Post*) that Tammany rule in this city was a fair specimen of what home rule would be in Ireland. The Irish in Ireland have never elected a corresponding class of men to any public offices, and the existence of an association like Tammany would not, we think, be possible in any Irish city. Every city in every civilized country contains a large body of persons, like the present Tammany chiefs, who would, of course, be delighted to get the city government into their hands and gut the treasury. London, Paris, Berlin, and Vienna all contain them by tens of thousands. Why do they not succeed? Because the decent and industrious majority will not suffer it; because, if there were any sign of it, men of all classes and conditions would unite against them *en masse*, all other business and excuses being laid aside, and save their civilization.

In fact, Mr. Hawkins disposes himself of his attack on both the Irish and the Catholics by the account he gives at the close of his letter of the behavior of the rest of this community in the presence of these Tammany exposures. People who cannot be roused into indignant activity by such biographies as were printed on Thursday, and whose whole press observes dead "journalistic" silence about them, must of course bear a large part of the responsibility for the existence of such "vermin" as were described. It is about as foolish to blame the Crokers and Gilroys and Grants for being what they are and doing what they do, as to blame tigers for killing oxen, and foxes chickens. Wise men who find their cattle or poultry disappearing under the ravages of beasts of prey, do not content themselves with saying: "Well, that's just like tigers"; or, "What better can you expect from foxes?" They set traps and they take their guns, lie in wait for the marauders, and polish them off and nail their hides to the barn door. The truth is, that everybody who has paid much attention to the problem of municipal government in this city is thoroughly tired of the "ignorant foreigner" explanation of our troubles. That the presence of a large body of ignorant foreign voters makes good government in New York more difficult, there is no denying, but it does not necessarily or readily hand over the control of the city to such a set of people as compose the Executive Committee of the Tammany Society. If the better class of voters, the industrious, intelligent class, chose to treat city affairs as business in the strict sense of the term, and refused, when dealing with them, to allow their attention to be distracted by Federal or State affairs, this band of pugilists, gamblers, and liquor-dealers would never get near the municipal treasury. Good people, whether native or foreign, Catholic or Protestant, are, after all, in the majority among us, and if they were always sensible as well as good, the gates of hell could not prevail against them.

Let us take as illustrations of this the returns of the three Mayoral elections which have taken place since the Mayor was given absolute power of appointment—which we

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consider a turning-point in our municipal history.

In 1884 the Republicans, knowing that Tammany was going to put this same "Hughy" Grant in the field against Grace, who was running as an Independent, nominated the Wicked Gibbs as their candidate. The result was: Gibbs, 44,386; Grace, 96,288; Grant, 85,361. Add Gibbs's vote to Grace's, and we have a majority over Tammany of 55,313.

In 1886 Henry George's candidacy introduced a new element into the struggle, which we may call the socialistic element, to which a considerable portion of the dangerous class rallied. It was plain to all friends of good government that the election of Hewitt, who, though the Tammany candidate, was a distinguished and trustworthy citizen, was very important, and that he was the only candidate who had any chance at all against George. Well, what happened? The Republicans insisted on running a candidate of their own in the person of Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, simply to "keep the party together," and, as he confessed when the canvass was over, without any expectation of winning. The result was: Roosevelt 60,435, Hewitt 90,552, George 68,110. Add the Roosevelt vote to Hewitt's, and we have a majority of 82,877 over George.

In 1888 we witnessed the same process. Hewitt was again in the field as the candidate of the orderly, industrious classes of the community, as opposed to Grant, the candidate of Tammany, with all that the term implies. Hewitt had shown faults of temper and judgment, it is true, but he was well known to the community as a man of high character, of long experience, and of endowments which made him an honor to the city and country. About Grant very little was known, and that little not good. All the presumptions were against him, and he was surrounded and backed by the Tammany "vermin." What happened? The Republicans, well knowing what the risks were, again insisted on running a hopeless candidate of their own in the person of Mr. Erhardt. The result was: Erhardt 73,037, Hewitt 71;979, Grant 114,111. If we add Erhardt's vote to Hewitt's, we have a majority of 30,907 over Grant. Who is then to blame for our shame—the tiger which eats the bullock because it is his nature to eat bullocks, or the farmer who, knowing the tiger is lurking in the thicket, and is constantly hungry, keeps his bullocks constantly exposed in the open pasture, and, when he finds their bones, simply loads the tiger with abuse?

THE COST OF RETAILING FOOD.

In his March report the statistician of the Department of Agriculture enters into a general discussion of the causes of the agricultural depression. Some of the reasons given are true ones and others need closer examination. Towards the end of the report he says: "The increasing swarm of dealers in regular markets and provision stores show that numbers of people are living off the difference between wholesale and retail beef"; and in general terms it is stated that one cause of low prices to the farmer is the exorbitant profits to the middlemen, the farmers being on one page advised to retail their own fruits and vegetables in cities, sell their own meats, and manufacture their own flour.

It is probable that Mr. Dodge, the statistician, wrote his report without a detailed study of the cost of doing the things he advised. As far as the retail dealer in foods is concerned, it is not true as a general statement that he is making large profits. In one place Mr. Dodge gives milk as an instance of this because that article, yielding the farmer but three cents, is sold to the consumer at eight cents per quart. But a knowledge of the cost of distributing milk throughout the city would have shown that a margin of five cents per quart yields but a moderate profit to the milkman. So the assertion that butchers and grocers are growing rich at the expense of the farmer is equally without foundation. As to grocers who deal out sugar and similar articles by the pound, it is found that an average gross profit of 16 per cent. leaves but a small net result, so great is the loss by division of packages into fractional amounts, by the large space of store-room required to do a business comparatively small in the aggregate of the sales, and by the cost of messengers and wagons to deliver at houses the numberless small purchases.

In like manner the retailers of meat are not getting rich as fast as Mr. Dodge thinks. For example, a first-class dealer in Brooklyn furnished to the *American Grocer* the following as the receipts from a steer:

Product.	Pounds.	Price per pound, cts.	Amount
Top sirloin	20	12½	$2 50
Porterhouse steak	45	23	10 35
Sirloin	60	18	10 80
Kidneys	2	12	24
Shanks	28	4½	1 26
Neck	45	6	2 70
Shoulder for soup	18	5	90
Shin	20	3	60
Round steak	88	12	10 56
Rump corned beef	32	12	3 84
Flank	20	10	2 00
Plate corned beef	110	5½	6 05
Rib	60	16	9 60
Chuck rib	106	10	10 60
Cross rib	39	12	4 68
Fat	35	3	1 05

Total amount received, $77.73; cost of steer, 760 pounds, $53.20; gross profit from animal, $24.52. From this gross profit must be deducted all expenses of store and service. The same dealer furnished the following as the average of five weeks' sales in January and February: Amount of sales, $745.14; gross profit, $122.61; expenses of store, $49.76; net profit, $72.85. From this must be deducted the rent and the expenses of delivery. Excluding these, the profit is about 10 per cent., or, with these items, about 8 per cent. upon the gross sales. Neither the risks of the business nor interest on capital is taken into the above account. Statistics of retailing meat will vary in different cities and in different parts of the same city. In spite of Prof. Atwater's scientific demonstrations of the nutritive value of the poorer cuts, it is a fact that butchers often have great difficulty in disposing of the lower grades of meat at any price. Poor people buy the expensive portions, and will take no other, sometimes to please their palates and sometimes from the notion that laborers should have the best of food. All this helps to account for the fact that the prices for the better parts of the carcass do not vary at retail with the fluctuations in the value of the live steer.

As regards our system of distributing food to families, it may be said that the apparent high cost arises from the fact that we are still pursuing the same methods as did our fathers. In every other line of business there have been marked changes reducing cost, but not so in retailing. We continue, as of old, to buy starch, sugar, and beef in small quantities daily from the corner store, and to pay a very large percentage of advance upon the wholesale price of these articles. The report alluded to cites a case thus: "The poor are robbed still further when a commodity costs 25 cents a peck, by a charge of 15 cents for half-a-peck, which is a clear penalty of 20 per cent. for buying in small quantities. Thus by every imaginable trick of trade the cost of buying is increased, while the producer gets less and less for his products." It is not clear how this extra five cents is any loss to the producer whose troubles are under consideration, though the loss to the poor buyer is apparent enough. Yet this case is not as bad as the peddler of coal who buys a ton for $5, and sells to the poor, say, at 50 cents a bushel (80 pounds), thus more than doubling his money. Perhaps we may at some distant day invent a method which will reduce the enormous cost of distributing household supplies to families. But it is not yet in sight. The railroads will carry a barrel of flour from Minneapolis to New York for 65 cents, while the storekeeper adds to his wholesale price the same sum or more for delivering at your door. The one represents a reduction in charges for a long carriage of 1,400 miles which is a modern wonder; the other represents a cost which stands as high as ever it did. Yet the storekeeper is not extortionate; there are too many competing shops to allow that. It is not the man but the method which is at fault. And so Mr. Dodge is wrong in his general conclusion that the retailer is accumulating profits which should go to the farmer.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, March 26, 1890.

THE wider interests of the inhabitants of these islands centre so much in the proceedings of Parliament that it is not without a certain feeling of daze that an Irishman finds himself walking up the floor of the House of Commons, pronouncing the oath or affirmation, as the case may be, subscribing the roll, shaking hands with the Speaker, and taking his seat. A few days after my introduction, an ex-

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perienced member asked what were my first impressions, and advised me to note them down while still fresh, as they would soon be lost in later associations.

To begin with the chamber itself. At first it struck me as small and sombre; but its appropriateness and beauty have grown upon me from day to day, and my dominant feeling has been that it was designed for, and is fitted to be, an arena for the discussion of more important affairs than those I have heard generally discussed there, and for the display of nobler motives and passions than what usually there find expression. It is panelled throughout in dark oak. The ornamentation is rich and chaste. The pendent posts are particularly beautiful. It is lighted by clere-story windows emblazoned with the arms of the three kingdoms; at night by electric lights through a stained-glass ceiling. The side galleries, usually unoccupied, are reserved for members. That opposite the Speaker is for visitors; above him is one for the reporters (it is interesting to observe the regularity with which they relieve each other every quarter of an hour). Behind and above the reporters a grating conceals the gallery for ladies; you can distinguish here and there a light-colored fan or dress and the notice-papers of the day held by many. Outside the chamber on the ground floor run the division lobbies, and above, on a level with the galleries, are writing and reading lobbies and lavatories, all panelled and ceiled in oak. There are in the division lobbies open fire-places, besides the other means of heating.

It is in keeping with the general inconsistency of the British Constitution and the somewhat "first come first served" principle upon which British society is based, that there are not, nor ever were, seats for more than 450 of the 670 members. Nor are there in the outer lobbies sufficient lockers for holding books, papers, and personal belongings. A new member has generally to wait several months before he can get one. The chamber, the division lobbies, and the gallery corridors constitute the House proper. The stately libraries, the well-appointed refreshment-rooms, the cosey reading and tea-rooms soon become familiar. The appointments are of the completest; every possible place is carpeted, and scrupulous cleanliness and order prevail, without stiffness or constraint. There is not, except in the smoking-room in the basement and in the cloak-room, a trace of the use of tobacco. The cloak-room is an interesting old cloister, in one corner of which Cromwell signed Charles the First's death warrant. Here now fires burn brightly, the latest telegrams are displayed, and civil policemen come forward to take your coat and umbrella, and outside the door a little shoe-black plies his trade. From the Speaker and clerks at the table to the neat girls who wait in the tea-room, I have seen nothing but fair dealing and politeness. The refreshments are good and cheap and well served. There are three dining-rooms opening into each other, overlooking the Thames, with the same tariff and arrangements; one is left by courtesy to Cabinet and ex-Cabinet Ministers, another reserved for members only; to the third you can invite gentlemen for whom you have procured orders. Members can take ladies anywhere when the House is not sitting, and, during sittings, to the corridors, a special refreshment-room and the terrace, all without orders. For gentlemen orders are required, and it is one of a member's trials to be handed, perhaps in the middle of an interesting debate, a card from a friend in the outer lobby, seeking an interview and admission. The dynamite scare led to increased strictness regarding the admission of strangers, but this strictness has so relieved members from interruption that, dynamite or no dynamite, they do not desire to revert to previous customs. You have free entrance to the House of Lords, and it is an anomaly that while there is some trouble in procuring by written order places for your friends, male and female, to hear the debates in your own House, you can, simply by asking leave of "Black Rod," an urbane old gentleman, take them into the House of Lords, where, while ladies are allowed chairs, you and your male visitors must stand. The Lords' chamber is gorgeously fitted up as compared to the Commons; the effect is none the less harmonious and pleasing.

The distinction between the "House" and the premises generally is curiously shown in the stationery of all descriptions with which you are freely supplied. That on the writing-tables in division lobbies and gallery lobby is stamped "House of Commons"; that in the libraries, "House of Commons, Library." On the writing-tables the old and new are mingled: the envelopes are gummed, and steel pens are at hand; but for the most part the pens are quill, there being knives to mend them; trays of wafers are provided, and lighted tapers to enable you to give dignity to your correspondence by appropriate House of Commons seals. There is a post and telegraph office in the centre hall, where you receive your letters. Telegrams are taken to members in their seats. All is stillness and quiet throughout the House and its surroundings; but for the presence of humanity, you could, as it is said, "hear a pin drop." There is nothing to suggest the hidden world below ministering to your health and comfort—a strange, weird, underground labyrinth of passages and halls: the 1,000-horse-power boilers generating steam for heating and cooking; the six or eight steam and gas engines; the furnaces for creating draughts and ventilating; the array of delicate electrical appliances. The same order and cleanliness that reign above prevail in the lower regions. The ventilation is carefully watched and regulated according to the number of members in the House. Telegraphs communicate with the attendants in charge of the openings in the roof. The air is filtered in from below through calico screens; during fog, through a large surface of cotton wool, six inches thick, and imperceptibly introduced into the House through a netted floor-cloth. In summer the air is drawn in over blocks of ice and through water-sprays. The man in charge immediately below can hear every word that is said. I remarked that he had a notice-paper on his desk and a 'Parliamentary Guide' beside him, so that he could intelligently follow the course of the debate and know something of the speakers.

So much for the surroundings. Except to prominent members by courtesy, no one has a place of his own on the comfortable leather "benches." Naturally you fall into a particular seat among your party. It is strange and somewhat provoking that the "Liberal Unionists," ardent supporters of the present Government, continue to sit with the Opposition. If a member wish to secure a seat for the day, he must be a good boy and attend prayers, when he may write his name on a card headed "Prayers," and attach it to his selected place, or he may leave his hat to pray for him with his card on it, and come in at leisure after prayers and claim the seat. The comparatively empty benches in the House of Commons, where all present at least appear to listen, must be more easily addressed than assemblies where members sit behind desks and can, if they like, read or write without heeding you. The respect apparently shown to the table or Speaker's chair is curious. We can understand bowing to the Speaker, or even to the mace, as the emblem of royalty, but it is grotesque to see the Speaker, with his mace-bearer and chaplain, while marching in at the opening of proceedings, repeatedly, as though oppressed with reverence, bowing to the empty chair. The obligation laid on the chaplain after prayers to back out of the House, bowing, cap in hand, is very objectionable.

The proceedings are of surpassing interest. There are often dreary enough days and nights; but you always enter the House aware that perhaps unexpectedly, and on some side issue, an important debate may arise—a question of vital consequence to millions of the human race may be considered. Within the past fortnight there have been some charming interruptions to ordinary debate, such as a disquisition by Sir George Trevelyan on the delights of summer in the country, and one by Mr. Bryce, anent rights-of-way, on Scotch scenery and travel. The chaotic and demoralized conduct of public affairs is striking. That this great empire is carried on even as well as it is under the present system shows the high average capacity and honesty of the workers. As things are, there can be no effectual general inquiry or general control. The most voluminous reports and papers are supplied. You can almost tell the cost to the country of each fresh bolt that is screwed into a ship of war, each brick laid in a Government building, the wages of each scullery-maid and messenger-boy in every Government department. But when actually before the House, the work must be slurred.

The proceedings are utterly disproportionate. I have heard millions voted away for the army, without inquiry, in ten minutes, by a dozen members; I have seen the House crowded and excited and the Ministry defeated in a division on a question as to whether a foot-bridge should or should not be erected over a certain new piece of railway. I have listened to interminable discussions about minute details of Irish prison discipline. Obviously the present state of things cannot continue. The exaggerations and misrepresentations of newspaper correspondents regarding the character and appearance, the speeches, abilities, and intentions of individuals on both sides of the House, recur to me, in face of the reality, as sad and sorry reading. The key of the situation seems to me to lie in the hands of the Irish party. Imbued as they are with intense earnestness and convictions, it would, I think, be impossible for any rules or arrangements to prevent their worrying and paralyzing the House by the discussion of their own needs and reducing all its business to confusion and ineptitude. The House in the attempt has spent some twelve years and abandoned some of its most cherished privileges and customs; in the midst of the change, if not ruin, the power of the Irish party remains practically undiminished.

A word in conclusion as to Mr. Parnell, one of the most interesting figures in the struggle. I had not seen him for many years. He is visibly older. His figure has attained a certain middle-aged heaviness. He looks pale—perhaps hardly delicate. His smile has all its former sweetness. I have seen him only once in the House. He entered quietly, stood for a few minutes watching the proceedings from behind the chair of the Sergeant-at-Arms, and then took his seat. The manner in which he folded his hands and held his head slightly bent forward, his whole pose and demeanor,

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were those of a man who had suffered, and endured, and waited, and upon whom experiences had told heavily. D. B.

BARRIÈRE'S BALZAC.

PARIS, March 21, 1890.

I WAS reading a few days ago the new book of Zola's, the 'Bête Humaine,' and after I had gone through it it seemed to me that I had had a long nightmare. This new work professes to describe the railway world from stoker to director; it gives life even to the engine, it takes us, at an enormous speed, through evanescent landscapes and dark tunnels; and darker still are the souls of the men and women who live on the line, or near the line; darker are their loves, interrupted at all times, spasmodic and agitated—darker are their jealousies, and hatreds, and instincts. Never has Zola been so unmerciful to human nature, so severe upon the natural man hidden in each of us, the prehistoric man of the caves, whom he pretends to see still in the modern man.

Is each generation to have now a new "Comédie humaine," to use Balzac's title? If so, what a distance there is already between the world of Balzac and the world of Zola! I made this comparison while perusing a compendious study, by M. Marcel Barrière, called 'The Work of Balzac: a Literary and Philosophical Study of the Comédie humaine.' Here is a real devotee of our greatest novelist. His analysis contains no less than 502 octavo pages; it is a great work in itself. M. Barrière dedicates it to M. Paul Bourget, our most subtle analyzer of passion, a novelist who professes to be a psychologist.

In his preface, which is a long study of the relations of the philosophy of each epoch and its romantic literature, M. Barrière gives us the genesis of his book. On the 3d of November, 1887, he was coming out of the French Theatre, where he had heard Musset's delightful comedy, "On ne badine pas avec l'Amour." His eyes fell, in the great staircase, on the bust of Balzac. "Like the faces of Mirabeau and of Bonaparte, Balzac's face bears the marks of the greatest convulsions of the soul. His forehead and the three vertical lines which separate his eyes, as in a lion's head, show the indomitable energy of genius, as well as the infinite of the human soul." M. Barrière fell into a sort of contemplation, and one by one the familiar characters of Balzac appeared before him. He soon found himself alone, and he had a sort of hallucination: it seemed to him that Balzac's face had become alive, that his mouth was really smiling, that his eyes were really turned on him.

The vision followed him as he found at home the 'Peau de Chagrin,' by Balzac, the "grand homme de province à Paris," open on his table. He began to study Balzac as he would have studied some great philosophical work. The "Comédie humaine" is divided into three parts: "Studies of Manners," "Philosophical Studies," and "Analytic Studies." To each of these groups of stories M. Barrière has added an introduction. The "Studies of Manners" (manners is not the exact word for *mœurs*, but I find no other), are themselves subdivided into Scenes from Private Life, from Provincial Life, from Parisian Life, from Political, Military, and Country Life; and each of these subdivisions has been made the theme of a special study by M. Barrière, who has besides analyzed, with some detail, each individual story. His volume is, therefore, somewhat like a book of natural history, where you find subdivisions of classes, families, genus, and species. The author treats society like a sort of fauna, and he devotes special chapters to the women of Balzac; for he justly observes that the study of woman must complete the study of man, especially with a writer who has created so many and such admirable feminine characters.

Balzac was the true creator of what we now call realism. He always took his characters from real life. His influence in this respect on all modern literature is undeniable. Some modern writers have gone further, and have founded a new school, under the name of naturalism; but they seem to be bent only on describing what is bad, low, repugnant, and hideous in nature. Balzac is nearer the truth: he shows us perpetually the contrast between virtue and vice, between egotism and self-sacrifice, between beauty and ugliness; he may be compared to the sun, which throws its rays on everything. The universality of his observation has sometimes brought on him the reproach of immorality; it never seemed to me that he deserved this reproach. I would not recommend, of course, the reading of Balzac's novels to a young and inexperienced person. The exhibition of many impure pictures, necessary in a "human comedy," might inspire dangerous thoughts and temptations in a young mind. But to a man of the world—one who has already been tossed on the waves of life—the reading of Balzac may be profitable. The author is always conscious of the morality or the immorality of his heroes. He preaches no sermons, but he shows us, in the most dramatic form, the dangers of each passion; he fills us with alarm, with awe, with horror; he touches also with an extraordinary force the chord of pity; and is not pity the last word of the science of life, a science so dearly acquired by all? A supreme and religious pity for all sufferers, whatever be the cause of their suffering, is the lesson constantly taught by Balzac; nobody has ever spoken more eloquently of the sublimity of self-sacrifice; his finest characters are men and women who have completely ceased to live for themselves, who live for another—a father, a husband, a wife, a child—or who live for a mere idea.

How different are our modern "naturalists." Surely, the author of the "Comédie humaine" would disavow many of them. They do not write in the same spirit as Balzac, even as George Sand, Stendhal, Mérimée; they do not even imitate Flaubert and the Goncourts, though the Goncourts and the author of "Madame Bovary" may be called the fathers of the new school. The type of the most modern naturalists is, for instance, this book, 'Nos Sous-offs' (Our Non-Commissioned Officers), by M. Descaves. His work has been prosecuted for immorality and as an insult to the French Army. M. Descaves was acquitted by the jury, and very justly, because his work is no more indecent than a hundred others; but it must be said that the present current of our romantic literature is very muddy. Even the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has been lately publishing novels which its founder, if he were still alive, would have rejected with horror and contempt. The whole tone of society is changed. The illustrated papers, with their engravings; the society papers, with their gossip, have corrupted the public taste. Even our walls, with their flaming advertisements, have been mirrors of immorality.

The naturalism of the present time is not at all the realism of Balzac: his "Human Comedy" shows us all the aspects of human existence. This title was not chosen by Balzac himself, but by his friend the Marquis Auguste de Belloy, who invented it in contrast to the "Divine Comedy" of Dante. The first title given by Balzac to a collection of works which appeared from 1833 to 1837 was "Studies of Manners in the Eighteenth Century." Balzac was, I believe, the first novelist who dared to represent the modern power of capital. The struggle for life becomes in many of his books the struggle for money. How could he have painted his time exactly if he had not shown the increasing influence of Mammon? Grandet, in the 'Scenes from Provincial Life,' and Gobseck, in the 'Scenes from Parisian Life,' are types of misers which cannot be forgotten.

Balzac well understood that the same passion may be inspired by entirely different motives, and I do not think that any moralist before him had shown this truth with as much precision. Avarice may be inspired by the most noble motives, as well as the most ignoble; ambition proceeds also from very different motives. Balzac shows us three types of ambitious young men in Albert Savarus, in Lucien de Rubempré, in Rastignac. The first is ambitious because he wishes to win the love of a noble woman; the second, for love of poetry; the third, who is more of a positivist, for love of money, of comfort, of power. In the 'Peau de Chagrin,' Balzac touches the highest summit of philosophy; he shows us the inanity of all human desire—desire feeding, so to speak, on itself, always satisfied, and always tired of the object on which it has been allowed to prey. It is a long commentary on Solomon's "Vanitas vanitatum et omnia vanitas."

There is a side to Balzac which has always surprised me, and on which M. Barrière has not sufficiently dwelt: it is what may be called the Rabelaisian side—what some would call the *gaulois* side. The disciple of Rabelais does not appear often in the great novels, though you meet him there at times; he is especially found in the 'Contes drolatiques,' which are a clever imitation of the stories of our old *conteurs*, and in the 'Physiologie du Mariage,' which is a long, and, in my opinion, a somewhat monotonous and fatiguing satire on the institution of marriage. The gayety of Balzac—a broad sort of gayety—has left its mark in the conversations which take place during the orgies of his young heroes, his journalists, his poets, his actresses, and courtesans; you can see also a trace of it in the childish pleasure with which he narrates in some novels the practical jokes played by some of his secondary characters.

M. Barrière has many pages on Balzac's style, which has been much criticised. The editor of a paper once said to Balzac, in looking with him over some proof-sheets, "Really, this is not French." "But," said Balzac, "it will become French." It has not become French; and, much as we may admire the power of invention and the genius of our greatest novelist, we cannot much recommend his style. It is too laborious, too intricate. Though few men have written so much, he always wrote with effort. His analyses are often painfully long; but one gets accustomed to these elaborate developments, and one has at times the same delightful sensations as the traveller who has been climbing a mountain, and who finds a beautiful view at the summit. M. Barrière compares Balzac, in this respect, to Saint-Simon, and the comparison is a just one. Who has not been fatigued in reading the memoirs of Saint-Simon, and who has ever regretted having read them? Who has not found himself richer for having gone through them? "Le style c'est l'homme," said Buffon. Balzac's moral nature was evidently very complex; he united in himself, and his correspondence shows it well, an exquisite sensibility and a certain

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coarseness; he was humble and proud; he was a man of genius and a child. On the whole, we cannot help loving him, and we must ever be grateful to him.

Correspondence.

REPRESSION OF SOCIALISTS IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of February 27, under the heading "The Aim of the German Socialists," the following occurs:

"The importance of the victories the Socialists have won in Germany can hardly be appreciated without remembering that they have been denied the use of the ordinary electoral machinery; that is to say, they cannot hold public meetings or publicly distribute documents. . . . They have, therefore, been obliged to resort to such odd means of canvassing as writing the names of their candidates in chalk on the walls of houses and on the sidewalks and distributing hand-bills surreptitiously."

This can easily produce a misleading impression of the position of the Socialistic party in Germany. In this city, and, so far as I can learn, elsewhere, this party enjoyed in the recent election all the advantages which their opponents did. Their campaign posters were just as large and their meetings just as public. The legislation against the Socialists by no means prohibits all activity to them, as the score of newspapers and periodicals which they publish in Germany clearly shows. The law provides for the interference of the Government in the case of societies, assemblies, or publications *directed towards the overthrow of the present political or social order*. It fails in giving too wide a scope to the discretion of the enforcing officer. A great variety of interpretations are obviously possible, and this has led in many cases to an over-harsh application of a law which, considering the offences that provoked it, cannot be unqualifiedly condemned. An example of extreme sensitiveness on the part of the authorities occurred here recently, where a meeting was immediately dissolved because the orator, in the heat of the moment, compared the present social régime to that in a house of correction.

The famous Gotha programme of 1875 represents but a milder form of Socialism. It breathes a spirit of moderation unknown to the Socialism against which the law was directed. Those who regard the elysium of the Gotha resolutions as the happy outcome of a gradually effected social and economic revolution, may be classed as bold and harmless optimists. Others, however, bent on a practical and speedy realization of their dreams, form a most dangerous element in a State. At a congress held at Wyden (Switzerland) in 1880, it was decided to strike out the word "lawful," which conditioned in the Gotha resolutions the efforts to be made in realizing the desired ends, asserting at the same time that "this was not to be considered as a change of doctrine, as the great majority of German Social-Democrats had never given themselves over to the illusion that their plans could be peaceably carried out in harmony with the law." A succinct statement of their views is contained in the untranslatable sentence: "Will es nicht biegen von oben herab, so muss es brechen von unten hinauf."

As an excuse and justification for the moderation which, as they asserted, had characterized their conduct in the past, the members of the Congress confess that they regard it as the necessary condition of a successful revolution "that the principles of the party should be inculcated among the people, and these be drawn into the movement as a preparation for the coming world-convulsing change, with all its mighty accompaniments."

One of the chief organs of the Socialistic movement, the *Sozial-Demokrat*, in its issue of May 25, 1880, disposes of religion in the following terms:

"Only in the wholly degenerate condition of mankind which existed two thousand years ago could so idiotic (*blödsinnig*) a religion as Christianity have ever struck root or spread itself at all. Ever since it has directed its efforts not to the extinguishing of want and misery in the world, but to the employment of the same for its own purposes as a cloak to conceal its own sins and crimes."

Still, these are undoubtedly extreme cases. The platform at the recent election, as it appeared in this district, contained nothing more incendiary than that "the socialization of society in place of the ruling individualization, that war of all against all, must be the aim of the State and of legislation."

The present law against the Socialists expires September next, and in all probability it will not be renewed. Whether or no the absence of all restriction will prove the beneficence of the present limitation, remains to be seen.

James Harvey Robinson.

Freiburg, Baden, March 15, 1890.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Schley's letter in the *Nation* of two weeks ago, and his reference to the Massachusetts school laws, lead me to think that a statement of those laws, in so far as they limit the right of private instruction, may be of interest to your readers.

In Massachusetts all children between the ages of eight and fourteen must receive instruction in the following studies: Reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, United States history, drawing, physiology, and hygiene.

The place where the instruction is to be given is not specified—neither are the methods or details of study; the penalty for a failure on the part of a parent or guardian to give instruction in these branches is a fine for the first offence; and the machinery for enforcing the law is the ordinary process of the courts. In case the child does not attend a public school or a private school approved by the local school commitee, the burden (in case of prosecution) is on the parent or guardian to satisfy the court that the child was in fact receiving instruction in these branches.

In 1889 a vigorous effort was made by the set of pulpit agitators and their followers who have become known as the "school cranks," to induce the Legislature to subject all private education, whether given in private unapproved schools, at home, or otherwise, to the control of the local school boards. This attempt met with determined opposition from Protestant and non-sectarian private schools in Boston, as well as from the Catholic or parochial schools, and proved unsuccessful. The Legislature, after listening for weeks to fanaticism and socialism, preached under cover of alleged devotion to our public-school system, declined by an overwhelming vote to make the change in question. This year the attempt was renewed, but the opposition did not think it worth while to notice the effort; and an adverse report from the committee, accepted by the House without opposition, has quieted the agitation for this year.

The State control of private education is one of the worst applications of that vicious paternalism towards which one of the great political parties of the day is rapidly drifting; but it is only fair to that party in Massachusetts to add that, while all the school cranks are Republicans or Prohibitionists, and while the Republican managers in Boston have not hesitated to use this agitation as a means of electing a Republican Mayor, the Republican majority in our State Legislature has, during two sessions, had the good sense to repudiate the socialistic demands of those who pretend to be the friends of our common-school system, but who are in fact its worst enemies.

N. Matthews, Jr.

Boston, April 3, 1890.

COINCIDENCE, IMMIGRANT, AND OUTSIDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "To America we owe" these expressions, according to Mr. Joseph Angus's *Handbook of the English Tongue*, published in 1872.

Yet in none of its various senses has *coincidence* ever been shown to have originated in our country. The word was used by Lord Bacon in 1605, and by the Rev. William Sclater in 1626; and it was freely employed, among Englishmen, almost from their time till the foundation of the United States, as it has been ever since.

Still earlier was the appearance of the adjective *coincident*. From about 1621, under which year I find it in print, its occurrence is by no means unusual. The meaning which it has in my oldest quotation for it is, however, very peculiar: "But there may be an other thing *coincident* to some degree of men, the which, although it be not necessarie for their being, yet it is necessarie for their well being." Nicolas Sander, D.D., *The Rocke of the Church* (1567), p. 216.

As to *coincide*, I believe it to be extremely rare before 1700. Bp. Richard Mountagu, who died in 1641, has, instead of it, the factitious Latin *coincidere*: "With whose severall reignes the principall parts thereof [*i. e.*, of this Prophecy] must *coincidere* and accord." *Acts and Monuments*, etc., (1642), p. 134. Dr. Thomas Fuller likewise writes, in 1650: "Making three members, of his four sore judgements mentioned in the Prophet, *coincidere*, to interfeer, yea run all into one." *A Pisgah-sight of Palestine*, II., ix., § 39. These passages give evidence that a vernacular verb allied to *coincident* and *coincidence* was beginning, about the middle of the seventeenth century, to be desiderated by scholars.

With regard to the substantive *immigrant*, as Mr. John Pickering long ago pointed out, Dr. Belknap, in his *History of New Hampshire*, was, probably, the first to venture it. This useful word, and also the revivals *immigrate* and *immigration*, have since come to be in perfectly good repute. Southey, it may be added, in a letter dated 1805, speaks of "*immigrant* monastics." See the *Life* of him by his son (1850), Vol. II., p. 323. If Americanisms were all as deserving of acceptance as *immigrant*, objection to them would be idle.

Of *outsider* the late Mr. G. P. Marsh was unable to trace the existence further back than 1844. Still, it was, most likely, at least a respectable colloquialism in England some time earlier. So, at all events, I think may be fairly inferred from the fact that it was used in 1833 by Mr. Albany W. Fonblanque, a writer studiously careful to avoid novel phraseology, and especially such as was at all tainted with vulgarity. I find that he writes:

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For those he cannot entertain, the *outsiders*." *England Under Seven Administrations* (1837), Vol. II., p. 354.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 17, 1890.

"MORALE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to the call of your correspondent, in No. 1291 of the *Nation*, for explanations of the use of the word "morale" in the sense of "moral tone," I suggest that the word "morale" in that sense is not French but Latin; adjective, neuter gender, used as a noun.

I have heard the word used in German in the same sense, with the article "das" (neuter gender), for instance: *Das Morale der Armee*, meaning the moral tone of the army, which corresponds with my suggestion.

Yours very truly, A. V. WEISE.

SARCOXIE, MO., April 3, 1890.

CODMAN'S BIBLIOGRAPHY OF LANDSCAPE GARDENING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the preparation of my 'List of Works on Landscape Gardening' which you take the trouble to criticise in your number of March 27, I endeavored to include only books which treated of the subject itself and to exclude gardening and horticultural works. Such a line is a very difficult one to draw, and probably no two persons who undertook a work of this sort would arrive at the same result. I purposely omitted some of the books mentioned in your review, for they did not, according to my judgment, deserve a place in the list. Chambers's 'Plans of the Gardens at Kew,' for example, is simply a description of that place; Taylor's book is architectural, not landscape gardening; and Parey's 'Verlagskatalog' nothing more than a bookseller's list. Lefèvre's 'Les Parcs et les Jardins' I have included, but it was overlooked by your reviewer.

In *Garden and Forest* for March 12 I asked for suggestions and additions to my list, for I realized that it was incomplete (it would be strange if it were not); but, to carry out my original intention, any additions that I may make must treat distinctly of Landscape Gardening. Yours, etc.,

HENRY SARGENT CODMAN.

BROOKLINE, MASS., March 31, 1890.

[In his preliminary remarks Mr. Codman gave no hint of limiting his scope, but said, "The list is as complete as I have been able to make it." This and the frequent insertion of such titles as "Paradise Lost, book iv," and "Rousseau's Héloïse, part iv," led us to suppose that he intended to include all works bearing upon the subject, as, for example, Taylor's, which gives "designs for gates, garden seats, alcoves, entrance gates, lodges, prospect towers," etc.—ED. NATION.]

THE MARYLAND ARCHIVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While thanking you for your very kind notice of the last volume of the Maryland Archives, I will mention that the correction of Leister's name will be found in the "Notes." The index of names contains only the forms found in the original manuscripts.

I am, sir, etc., WM. HAND BROWNE.

THE BOSTON ART MUSEUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be sorry to think that what has been said of the distribution of the casts in the Boston Museum would cause annoyance to Mr. Robinson, whose great services to archæology I admire and envy. His report, and even the passages from it which his letter quotes, seem to state all that I have asserted: I have only given details. It is probable that Mr. Robinson regrets more than any one else the admitted lack of perfectly logical arrangement. The critic cannot appreciate the local accidents which have caused this shortcoming; he can only point it out and express his sense of its importance. The grouping of works of art according to their epoch, style, or school is the most important point; everything else—symmetry, convenience, beauty of grouping, and the rest—should give way to that. R. STURGIS.

NEW YORK, April 5, 1890.

Notes.

J. W. BOUTON sends us the prospectus of an illustrated catalogue of the decorative-art museum of Frédéric Spitzer, to be styled 'La Collection Spitzer,' and to fill six folio volumes. There will be 350 full-page plates of a very high order, one-half colored, besides more than twice as many representations in the text from pen-and-ink sketches. This collection embraces from thirty to forty divisions, of ivories, tapestries, terracottas, bronzes, illuminated MSS., Venetian and Bohemian glass, locks and keys, arms and armor, Faïence and Palissy ware, enamels, rock crystals, etc., etc. The execution of the letterpress will leave nothing to be desired, to judge from the sample.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish 'Personal Creeds; or, How to Form a Working Theory of Life,' by the Rev. Newman Smyth; 'The Nature and Method of Revelation,' by Prof. George P. Fisher; and 'The Philosophy of Preaching,' by the Rev. A. J. F. Behrends.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, announce 'Disraeli in Outline,' by F. Carroll Brewster: a concise biographical sketch and a careful summary of Disraeli's novels.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will add the following to their Modern Language Series: 'Practical Lessons in German Conversation,' by Prof. A. L. Meissner of Queen's College, Belfast; 'A Primer of French Literature,' by Prof. F. M. Warren; and a 'Deutsche Literaturgeschichte,' by Prof. C. Wenckebach of Wellesley College, to make three volumes.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will have ready next month a 'Reference Handbook of English History for Readers, Students, and Teachers,' by W. H. Gurney; 'The Nine Worlds,' studies from Norse mythology, by Mary E. Litchfield; and Wentworth's 'School Algebra.'

'Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe' renews itself for the approaching tourist season. It is no bulkier than hitherto, and we observe no changes except such as pertain to the personnel of our diplomatic and consular service.

Mrs. Clarkson Potter's 'To Europe on a Stretcher' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) has a brief message to deliver, namely, "It can be done." The author cites her own experience on two journeys, and supplies such anecdote and incident as was needed to make a book of her tract.

Mr. W. H. H. Murray, who attained notoriety as a writer by his Adirondack tales, has not gone far afield in preparing a volume on 'Lake Champlain and Its Shores' (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.). It is a medley of personal adventure, historic gleanings, and practical directions for sailing and fishing on the waters of the lake. An index was more clearly needed than the author's portrait, but none has been provided.

The Browning Society of Boston has made a pretty brochure of its memorial proceedings in King's Chapel on January 28, 1890. The Chapel itself is freely commemorated in photographs, and there is a portrait of Browning in his latter and grizzled years. Mr. C. P. Cranch, in the course of his remarks, said: "At the time I first knew him [Browning], he was thirty-seven years old. He wore no beard or moustache, and his hair was nearly black."

The Messrs. Appleton have added to their "Town and Country Library" 'Robert Browning's Principal Shorter Poems,' which will be found a convenient selection. It should be noted that the poet's final readings have not been followed, and that the punctuation has not been scrupulously watched, as is more needful in the case of Browning than of any other poet who ever wrote.

'Cooper's Biographical Dictionary' is not one that we should have marked for a fresh lease of life. First, its typography is calculated to deter the buyer and student, being very condensed; and in other respects the work was not distinguished in its class, except in being fuller of the obscurer British names, and in this particular Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' of course supersedes it. All the faults which we pointed out in the first edition (in 1873) have gone untouched, and, in fact, there is no pretence at revision. The original cumbersome single volume has been split in two, and a supplement brings the work down only to 1882. As we observe no attempt to supply the omissions of the main dictionary (which excludes living men, by the way), we have really in the supplement the dead of a decade, and this narrow survey has at least the advantage of revealing the world's constant supply of great men. The Dictionary, with a change of publishers, now takes its place in "Bohn's Reference Library" (New York: Scribner & Welford).

We have received two new comparative grammars of Greek and Latin, both elementary and avoiding controversy. Messrs. King and Cookson's (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is mainly an abridgment of their earlier work on the same subject. The only part not taken from the larger volume is a chapter on comparative syntax, in which the authors follow Delbrück and Monro pretty closely. But they seem not to be aware that Delbrück has modified his theories on the "wish" meaning as fundamental in the optative. Moreover, the statement that the subjunctive in final clauses is the subjunctive of "will," while the optative in similar clauses is that of "wish," scarcely commends itself to readers of Prof. Goodwin's latest writing on the relations of these words. However, the book certainly gives a fair statement of the main principles of phonetics and morphology, with little discussion, but plenty of illustration, and will be a useful guide to beginners in the science. Its chapters on accent and on strong and weak roots may be especially mentioned as exponents of the views of the "new school" on these topics.

The second edition of Prof. Victor Henry's 'Précis de Grammaire Comparée' has just been translated into English by Mr. R. T. Elliott (Macmillan). The original appeared in

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1888, and is therefore known to scholars. The author lays claim to no originality, but simply endeavors to present the latest results of Indo-European philology, and gives us a comparative grammar in the strict sense of the term. Here and there we could wish for less brevity of treatment, as for instance in what is said about accent, which is made to appear too much of a phenomenon. The bibliography of the subject prefixed to the work will be found useful, and there are full indexes of the words treated.

It has sometimes maliciously been said of the New York Chamber of Commerce (considering how little of a representative body it is in action), that the best things about it are its library and its portrait gallery. The Secretary, Mr. George Wilson, has just edited a handsome volume descriptive of this gallery, which now numbers eighty paintings and four busts. As a civic collection it is very notable, as a few names will indicate: John Jacob Astor, Jacob Barker, De Witt Clinton, Peter Cooper, William E. Dodge, Moses H. Grinnell, George Griswold, Alexander Hamilton, and Robert Lenox. But also one finds in their company John Bright, Richard Cobden, Joshua Bates, John Sherman, George Washington, etc. Mr. Wilson furnishes a biographical sketch in each case.

In the *Sidereal Messenger* for April (published at Northfield, Minn.) is an account of the very extensive Wolff-Leavenworth collection of portrait engravings at Syracuse University. Primarily got together in the line of distinguished physicians of all ages and countries, it was increased by absorption of other collections till it numbered 12,000, in which more than 300 astronomers and mathematicians are included. The *Messenger* gives a list of the more distinguished astronomers.

Small notice was taken of the death in May, 1889, of a once famous dragoon, Gen. William S. Harney, as much the typical Indian fighter of his day as Gen. Miles or the late Gen. Crook, but on a lower level of humanity. An early portrait of this rugged character precedes an uncontroversial sketch of his life in the *Journal* of the United States Cavalry Association for March (Fort Leavenworth, Kan.).

A fairly good portrait of Prof. Bryce—a process print—forms the frontispiece of the Philadelphia *Book News* for April. Not a few of our readers might be glad to procure it for their copies of his 'American Commonwealth.'

The *True Commonwealth* is the title of a new monthly quarto journal launched in Washington on April 1. It aims to effect the repeal of all monopolistic and class legislation, and the "nationalization" of railways, telegraphs, and other essentially monopolistic enterprises, along with municipal ownership of street railways, gas-works, etc.

The nineteenth of the Economic Tracts issued by the Society for Political Education, at No. 330 Pearl Street, is 'References to the Constitution of the United States,' by William E. Foster of the Providence Public Library—a new edition of that published in 1881. It is a very copious guide to the influences which resulted in the framing of the Constitution, its actual construction and adoption, and its vicissitudes since 1789. An appendix makes selections from the Supreme Court's decisions and opinions from 1865 to 1889. The student could not ask for better assistance.

The statistics of manufactures in Massachusetts for the year 1888 have been tabulated and are now reported by the Labor Bureau. As these statistics have been collected for but three years, they are to be looked upon rather as a necessary preliminary to valuable results than as of present usefulness. The census of 1885 disclosed the existence of some 23,000 manufacturing establishments, while this report deals with returns from less than 4,000. Still, it is possible to learn something from the experience of three years, and for many purposes it is more convenient to work with a small number of typical cases than to attempt to generalize from them all. Thus, the census shows that about 90 per cent. of the value of manufactures was produced by some 4,500 establishments. On the other hand, the existence of nearly 19,000 establishments, with an average product of less than $4,000 each, is a circumstance that deserves the attention of those who have felt alarm at the supposed swallowing up of the small industries by the great ones. In fact, nearly 7,000 establishments produce on the average less than $1,000 a year. At the other end of the scale there are 66 establishments each producing an average value of over $2,000,000 a year. For most purposes we should prefer to consult the trade journals and market reports rather than this compilation. Statements made to Government officers by private persons about the details of their business are not very trustworthy evidence.

The foreign trade of Persia is the subject of the last of the interesting series of letters from the Hon. George Curzon to the London *Times* on that country. After describing its eleven principal trade arteries, he shows that Russia controls the greater part of the trade of the northern provinces through her rigidly exclusive policy in respect to her railways and the navigation of the Caspian, now merely a Russian lake. Equally supreme are the English and Indian merchants in the southern provinces, Great Britain having the trade monopoly of the Persian Gulf. The great struggle is for the middle region, and here, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the Russians, English interests are decidedly in the ascendant. The total volume of trade with the United Kingdom Mr. Curzon puts at £2,500,000 per annum, or more than ten times the amount given in the last edition of 'Whitaker' and the 'Statesman's Year-Book.' One of the great obstacles to its increase is "the difficulty of remittances, arising in the main from the constantly fluctuating rate of exchange—a point in which the institution of banks in Persia may be expected to afford some relief. Another is the utter contempt for the most elementary principles of contract that is freely displayed by the Persian merchant," and the absence "of any tribunal for enforcing legal obligations."

"The Mountain System of the Balkan Peninsula," by a member of the Austrian General Staff, is one of the most noteworthy of the papers in the recently issued volume of *Mitteilungen* of the Imperial Geographical Society of Austria. It is illustrated by two admirable maps, the one hypsometric, showing the relative heights of the region, the other defining the limits of the various distinct chains which make up the whole system. Closely connected with this are papers on the Illyrian and Montenegrin mountains, though the accompanying maps are drawn in a different manner. The former are delicately shaded contour maps, while in the latter the chains are designated by black lines varying in width with the height, the passes and single peaks being very distinctly shown. For engineering and military operations this method seems to possess some advantages. The principal African paper is a description of Count Teleki's journey in the Galla country; but there is a very minutely detailed map of the Congo from Stanley Falls to Stanley Pool, and several of the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, showing its changes during the last two centuries.

In behalf of a syndicate of capitalists, M. Prompt, a French engineer, has submitted to the Egyptian Government a project of prolonging the railroad along the bank of the Nile from Girgeh to Assuan, from which point the river is to be opened to navigation to the confluence of the White and Blue Niles at Khartum, a distance of some 1,200 miles, by means of twenty-two locks to be constructed across it at determined points. M. Prompt's memorial asserts that the railways of Upper Egypt can never be made remunerative until a lively traffic is established with the Sudan. He estimates the cost of the contemplated enterprise at eighty million pounds, or fifteen for railroads, fifty-eight for the locks, and seven for unforeseen outlays. As, in the present unpacified state of the Upper Nile, even a military march from Massowah via Kassala to Khartum is out of the question, the proposal is rather more premature, relatively to existing conditions in Egypt, than it would have been many years ago, when a similar plan was mooted by Sir Samuel Baker.

A number of Italian universities, notably that of Naples, recently suffered an interruption in their courses of instruction through students' strikes and kindred manifestations, for which the local prevalence of influenza was made a pretext. The incident has been of service in attracting public attention throughout Italy to the way in which some of her universities are fulfilling, or failing to fulfil, their high educational mission. Considerable impatience has long been felt with the reluctance the Government has manifested to deal summarily, by cancelling their charters, with those of them that have most notoriously outlived their usefulness. On the other hand, there is also much chafing, both in the universities and in the secondary colleges or *licei* that are tributary to them, under the oppressive uniformity of the programmes of instruction marked out by the central authority of the Department of Public Instruction at Rome. As general editor of the new organ, *La Riforma Universitaria*, published at Bologna, with the coöperation of editorial contributors from all the leading Italian schools, Prof. Tullio Martello solicits contributions from "all scholars and students who are prompted to pass criticisms on our present university organization, or to deplore the methods of instruction prevalent in our universities."

—The April *Century* is unusually varied in its contents. Several of the articles are brief, but they convey a considerable amount of information, and illustrate the ever increasing compactness and condensation of our periodical literature. Especially noticeable for this directness, thoroughness, and grasp is the contribution to the series of social papers, which describes the field and characteristics of the labor problem, with many of its special factors presented with some detail, such as tenements, insurance, Sunday work, etc. As a statement of conditions and proposed remedies from one point of view this paper has much educational value. The description of the African slave trade, with its illustrations, by one of Stanley's lieutenants, is a forcible article which should stimulate interest in the extirpation of this cruel evil in its last stronghold, among the Arab hunters and the predatory tribes; and the means of doing it seem to grow easier. Another humanitarian paper is Mr. Kennan's criticism of the late Siberian outrages. The Director-General of the Paris Exposition makes a number of practical suggestions in regard to the World's Fair. Japan, the Fur-Seal

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Islands, and the Shoshone Falls are dealt with in the department of travel; the old Poetic Guild in Ireland is the representative of literature; Prof. Putnam's admirable paper upon the Serpent Mound of Ohio stands for science; and Mr. Cole's engravings after Bellini, as excellent as any in the series, add the art contribution. In addition to all this, there are many poems of facile workmanship, the usual amount of fiction, and other general papers, among which we can note only Col. Higginson's reminder to Harvard of how slight attention is being paid to the art and theory of literature in university education.

—There has been during the last month in France a new outbreak of the old quarrel about cremation. Most people doubtless have thought that this was no longer, at least in any metaphorical sense, a burning question, but they have been mistaken. The subject has been laid before the Pope, and by him referred to the Supreme Congregation of the Holy Office, and the conclusions to which the Congregation came have been embodied in a Papal rescript which the Cardinal Archbishop of Paris has lately promulgated to the faithful. Henceforth it is only the ashes of heretics that will find repose in a columbarium. It is curious to note the reasons upon which this decision may be supposed to rest. Cardinal Richard goes back for them to the Fall of Man and the primal curse. Ashes to ashes is not "dust to dust," he says, and, besides, there is a natural respect for the body which is violated by cremation, and also a Christian respect for it in view of the resurrection. These considerations being insufficient to resolve the mind of the *Figaro* of all doubt in the matter, that newspaper applied to "one of our most distinguished ecclesiastics," the author of 'Bonté,' who gave it a categorical answer under four heads, leaving out, as he says, the merely sentimental reasons. The Abbé declares that incineration is a pagan custom; that it is contrary to the example of Christ; that it lacks the respect for the human body which the Church has always cherished; and, lastly and chiefly, that it has been revived by "nos ennemis les plus directs," the Freemasons, who hit upon this way of disposing of the bodies of atheists and infidels in order to avoid sacerdotal intervention and Christian funeral rites. The force of this reasoning will appear to most people to be less than coercive, but it is safe to say that, backed by the Papal rescript, it will check, at least for a while and among the upper classes in France, the practice that it rebukes. For ourselves, we find something amusing in the sight of our old friend, the *argumentum a gaudio infidelium*, reappearing under Papal sanction, and settling, more or less infallibly, a question of public sanitation.

— Those to whom experiments for a remodelling of society appeal must be saddened by the last phase in the history of the Altruist Community of St. Louis. "We find it necessary," says Mr. Alcander Longley, its late President, in the columns of its organ, the *Altruist*, "to announce to our readers that the Altruist Community is dissolved by mutual consent of all the members. The reasons for the dissolution are some of them as follows: Since Mr. Smith withdrew late last fall, there have been but two male members of the Community, George E. Ward and myself, and our natures and our methods of doing things are so different that there has been more or less discord at different times since, and not at any time real harmony." One of the causes of disagreement was Mr. Ward's ambition to be "appointed or elected as one of the editors and managers of the *Altruist*," which Mr. Longley had decided views about controlling himself, saying that he "would not edit and manage a paper with Mr. Ward or any one else." This led to the calling of a special meeting to elect a President in Mr. Longley's place, and the success of Mr. George E. Ward and two Mrs. Wards, who formed a majority of the Community. Meanwhile, Mr. Longley admits, "I have during our dissensions said some very uncomplimentary and disrespectful things to Mr. Ward, for which I have told him I am sorry. Among them was, I charged him with being an Anarchist and with bullying his wife to get her to vote as he desired in the Community, and with having acted fraudulently in keeping the record of the Community as Secretary, and in the election of himself as President, as well as other reproaches, all of which I hereby retract and apologize for." Mr. Longley, and the remaining member of the pentagonal Community, Miss Travis, withdrew when Mr. Ward's journalistic aspirations were about to be gratified. But we are glad to say that there is still hope for the future of the Community, as the reader will see from the following statement, which appears, under date of March 31, at the bottom of the last column of the same issue of the *Altruist:* "Mr. Longley and Miss Travis have united again under the name of the Altruist Community, with the same agreement, and will continue their business together as before, and receive any acceptable persons as members."

— The forty-seventh report of the returns of births, marriages, divorces, and deaths in the State of Massachusetts brings down the figures to the end of 1888. The tables are numerous and extremely elaborate, extracting from the returns answers to nearly all the conceivable questions that can be asked of them. Most of this information is of value only to the medical profession, but there are some generalizations that are of the widest interest and of the most profound importance, as they seem to establish a practical solution of the "population problem." For the period 1861-1880 the natural increase of population, indicated by the excess of the birth-rate over the death-rate, was smaller in Massachusetts than in any European country except France and Hungary, nor has the rate materially varied within the last decade. It is not far from 63-100 of one per cent., or less than one-half the rate in Great Britain. The rate in Hungary is connected with a very high death-rate, and it may very well be disregarded as relating to a different state of civilization. Excepting Hungary, the number of marriages in proportion to population is greater in Massachusetts than in any European country. We have, then, a society in which marriages are numerous, but in which their offspring is limited, the death-rate moderate, and, as we know from other sources, wealth increasing. The inference is, that the standard of material comfort is rising, and it is clear that, for the present at least, man's command over nature is extending much more rapidly than nature's command over him. There is probably no thriftier or more progressive community than Massachusetts to be anywhere found, and few places where the chances of long life are better than in most of her towns. It is noteworthy that the birth-rate in France is almost equal to that in Massachusetts, while the death-rate is about one-fifth higher. The significance of these figures depends in many ways upon the factors of immigration and emigration, and any statistician who can determine the respective effects of these causes will render a most valuable service.

—It is well known that the greater part of the population of Massachusetts is of foreign origin, reckoning from about the middle of the century, but it is rather surprising to learn that the excess of children born of foreign parents over those of native parentage is about 3,000, and is still increasing. The number born of mixed parentage is more than one-fifth of the whole, and is, of course, increasing. While the birth-rate of the native population is about 18 per 1,000, that of the foreign population is more than 54 per 1,000, which is considerably higher than that of any other country. On the other hand, the proportion of deaths among the foreign-born as compared with the natives is only as one to three. But it is to be remembered that one-fifth of all the deaths are of children under one year of age, and one-third of those under five years. The probability of life in the case of immigrants, who are for the most part over five years of age, is, of course, much above the average. We do not find, however, that there is any satisfactory statement of the rate of mortality among the children of immigrants, although it may be deducible from some of the tables. The returns are edited by Dr. Samuel W. Abbott, and the very useful comments are also by him.

GOODWIN'S NEW MOODS AND TENSES.

Syntax of the Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb. By William Watson Goodwin, LL.D., Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. Rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co.

EVERY classical scholar in America will welcome this new and enlarged edition of one of his best friends with keen pleasure and genuine pride that the author is one of *us*. About twenty years ago we heard a professor in a large university say that he considered Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses' the best work on the subject in any language, and no doubt hundreds of others on both sides of the ocean share that opinion. If this was true of "a book written in the enthusiasm of youth as an ephemeral production," as Professor Goodwin says in his preface of 1889, what may we not expect of the work in its present form, revised as it has been by the author "under the greater sense of responsibility which doubled years and more than doubled experience have brought him"? The book itself is more than doubled. Over 4,800 examples are indexed, as against the more than 2,300 of the previous edition. The page (as printed) is an inch longer and a quarter of an inch wider than before; and we have pages xxxii, 464 to offset xv, 264. The appendix has five heads to it now, the former appendix having had only two. It is thus apparent that the book has been expanded in every direction, and we have here the carefully gathered results of the author's mature work in the field in which nearly a generation ago he achieved such brilliant success. What he did then has earned him the lasting gratitude of nearly a generation of students; and this new work, which greatly increases their indebtedness, will, we trust, do even more for the next generation than the smaller book has done for us. But the smaller book is by no means superseded—at least we hope not. While teachers will of course have the new edition for their own study, they will still want the other for the use of their classes. Professor Goodwin himself says:

"It is hardly necessary to remark that the work, in its present enlarged form, is not intended for use as a grammatical text-book in the class-room, except perhaps the portion printed in the largest type. On the other hand, it is hoped that the increased fulness and the greater space given to discussions will

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make the work more useful for private study and for reference."

The last thirty years have been exceedingly busy ones in the realm of Greek syntax. The stimulus has been felt over a widely extended area, and one of the chief factors—perhaps the chief one—in educating the English-speaking world to a clear and intelligent understanding of the subject has been the predecessor of the book under review. In the editions of Greek authors for school use it has held the leading place among the authorities referred to. Since its appearance, however, theoretical syntax has become more and more prominent as the study of comparative grammar has advanced; moreover, the foundations are now being laid, broad and deep, for the historical syntax of the Greek tongue. The present is the day of statistics in language study, the chief apostles in this line being Professor Schanz and his trained band of investigators. As *Heft* after *Heft* of the famous *Beiträge* appears, we feel that one more solid pier is sunk for the splendid superstructure that is to span the current of Greek thought from Homer to Aristotle.

A comparison of the new 'Moods and Tenses' with the old shows the difference between 1860 (or say 1865) and 1890 in these two respects. Speaking of his first edition, Professor Goodwin says:

"I then attempted chiefly to 'give a plain and practical statement of the principles which govern the relations of the Greek Moods and Tenses,' avoiding theoretical discussions as far as possible. . . . Something more than mere statement of facts has been attempted in the present work, although nothing has been further from my thoughts than a complete theoretical discussion of all the principles which govern the use of the moods. He who ventures far upon that sea is in great danger of being lost in the fog or stranded; for, while comparative philology has thrown much and most welcome light on the early history of the Greek language, it has also made us more painfully aware of our ignorance, although it is a more enlightened ignorance than that of our predecessors."

Additions or amplifications of theoretical points are found here and there throughout the volume. We note especially the pages (107-112) on the development of clauses with ἵνα, ὡς, ὅπως, ὄφρα, and μή The paragraphs (§§398-401) on the origin of the Greek conditional sentence are added. Remarks (*a*) and (*b*) on pages 95 and 96 of the old edition are expanded to nearly two pages (149-150) in the new. The treatment of the apodosis without ἄν (ἔδει, etc.) occupies nearly four pages in the smaller work; the same topic has eight pages and a half given to it in the large work. "Apodosis contained in the Protasis" is a new heading under conditional sentences. "Consecutive clauses with ὥστε, etc.," are discussed through thirteen pages (221-233). A note ten lines long in the elder book (note 6, pp. 228-229) has swelled to two pages (357-358) in the younger. The potential optative and indicative have a special section of nine pages and a half devoted to them (pp. 77-86).

Statistics of constructions are given in footnotes *passim* and in appendix iii, and form a striking feature of the new book. How many persons will read these statistics with scarcely a thought of the enormous labor required to make some of these short statements! What does it mean to say truthfully that a given construction—*e. g.*, the use of the future participle to express purpose—does not occur in Cicero? It means that through nearly 4,900 Teubner pages of Latin this particular construction has been watched for with close attention, and by at least several readers, or by one reader several times; for even a temporary flagging of the attention from this particular point may cause the reader to overlook some instance of the construction. We assert here, what we believe to be a fact, that as common a construction as ἐλογίζοντο ὡς εἰ μὴ μάχοιντο (or μαχοῖντο), αἱ πόλεις ἀποστήσοιντο, cannot be found in Thucydides. No doubt this statement will cause some who are reading this author to watch for the construction, and after a while one of two things may happen: our statement will be disproved, or this little fact may be added to our knowledge of Thucydides. If any one will turn to page 114 of the new 'Moods and Tenses,' he will find in five lines the proportion of subjunctives to optatives after past tenses in pure final clauses, and after verbs of fearing, given for Homer, Pindar, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes, Herodotus, Thucydides, Lysias, Isocrates, Isæus, Demosthenes, Æschines, Plato, and Xenophon. "In all writers before Aristotle 528 : 894." Evidently, while we have slept, Dr. Weber has been hard at work threading his way across all these multitudinous pages.

Professor Goodwin's work has always been marked by a praiseworthy absence of attempts at super-subtle and metaphysical refinements. While carefully distinguishing things that differ, he does not force useless distinctions merely because there is a difference in the form of expression. He acknowledges his indebtedness to Madvig "for the first conviction that the syntax of the Greek moods belonged to the realm of common sense." The seed thus sown by the great Dane fell upon good ground; and, thanks to Madvig's disciple, the Americans who have grown up on the 'Moods and Tenses' have never had any other idea, we imagine, than that common sense prevailed in Greek as well as anywhere else. The refusal to try to define the moods is one example of this; the treatment of ἄν according to usage and not according to some theory (page 144[1]) is another. The preliminary statements about the different kinds of conditional sentences (Grammar, §220; M. and T. old, §48; new, §§390-395) have always seemed to us to be a capital illustration of reducing a problem to its simplest terms. Nor have we ever been able to think out any better way of giving the distinction between ἤν with the subjunctive and εἰ with the optative in future conditions, than by simply saying, with Professor Goodwin, that the latter is a "less vivid" form of expression. Whatever difference exists between "if you do that, you'll get a thrashing," and "if you were to do that, you would get a thrashing," just that much difference—no more, no less—seems to exist between the two constructions in Greek. On p. 17 (end) occurs a remark further illustrating this common sense: "But the Greeks, like other workmen, did not care to use their finest tools on every occasion; and it is often necessary to remember this if we would avoid hair-splitting."

One of the inalienable rights of a reviewer is the privilege of commenting on points in which he differs from the writer whose work he is reviewing; hence the following criticisms. At the end of §22, which explains the difference between relative and absolute time, occur the words "but not in protasis," which are not in the old edition, and which are too brief, we fear, for a clear understanding of their scope and purport. At least, we confess that we do not understand them, because we doubt the statement in the only meaning we can attach to the words. In §33 the statement about the historic present is enlarged by admitting that it may sometimes be used for the imperfect. This is well, as far as it goes; but we doubt the need of "sometimes." What is the objection to saying that *every* historic present may be replaced by the imperfect? The aorist is the unadorned narrative tense, and the imperfect is the picturesque narrative tense; and admitting that the historic present is the "animated" tense of narration, who is to say us nay if we choose to exchange animation for picturesqueness rather than for mere unadorned statement? This has a bearing on §119. Many so-called imperfect infinitives may represent the historic present just as well as the imperfect; *e. g.*, in the example quoted from Plato, Symp. 175 C, we can imagine no reason why δειπνοῦμεν, εἰσέρχεται, κελεύει and ἐῶ, are not as correct representatives of the infinitives as the imperfects are. We do not pretend in the least that the present has any superior claim; we only contend for full equality. The remarks about the aorist in §58 might well be expanded to take in cases where an aorist indicative is used in generic sentences instead of the constructions mentioned in §§90 and 91. Thus, in Thuc. 2, 35, 2, ἄν ἤκουσε, in connection with a generic present in the main clause. In Dem. 23, 96, ὅτε ἔθεντο =ὅταν θῶνται; and in 23, 97, εἰ ἠγνόησε (=ἤν ἀγνοήσῃ) is followed by εἰ with perfect and present indicative, all three generic. In §103 "very often" might be replaced by "usually," to conform more nearly to Grammar, §118, 2, which, we feel certain, conforms to the facts. In the 'Hellenica,' for example, according to a count made some years ago, ἐν παρέργῳ, there are nine instances of the perfect optative expressed by the compound form (1, 5, 2; 3, 5, 23; 4, 3, 1, and 8, 16 and 8, 35; 5, 2, 32, and 2, 35; 6, 2, 3, and 5, 52), and only four expressed by the simple form (3, 2, 8, and 5, 23; 4, 3, 10; 5, 2, 3), and one of these is τεθναίη (4, 3, 10).

We miss in the new edition, as in the old, and as we miss everywhere, in fact, recognition of the fact that the infinitive, present or aorist, represents the imperative (or, if μή and the aorist infinitive, the subjunctive) of *oratio recta*. This has always surprised us. If in Latin it is a fact that the imperative of O. R. becomes the subjunctive of O. O., it is equally a fact that in Greek the imperative is transferred to the infinitive, as in English. Thus, the first example under §110 would really belong under §123[a], if there were such a section, as the direct discourse is ἡ θύρα κεκλείσθω· §146 brings forward a new point in regard to the aorist participle in connection with the present or imperfect of τυγχάνω, λανθάνω, etc. It seems natural that the point here made should be true where the *present* of these verbs is used; but where it is the imperfect, we confess that we do not feel so certain about it. At any rate, it must often be a mere matter of how one chooses to translate. The example from Thuc., 3, 111, is perhaps hardly a case in point, considering the uncertainties of the passage; and Lys. 12, 27, is paralleled by Thuc. 8, 105 (overlooked by Classen in his *Anhang* to 3, 111). The construction is said to be a rare one, a statement certainly borne out by Thucydides. He uses the present and imperfect of τυγχάνω thirty-five times (see Von Essen), and with the aorist participle only twice, even counting 3, 111, as an instance. (2, 74 is not a case in point, as the aorist participle here is adversative.) The perfect participle occurs three times (3, 98; 6, 96; 8, 105), and the present participle twenty-seven times (§147, 2).

The footnote on page 50 of the old edition is omitted in the new, Professor Goodwin having apparently fully satisfied himself that his principle is in such strict accord with the common sense of the thing as to need no defence. An interesting example bearing upon this point is Pl. Phædo 106 A, where ὁπότε ἀπαγάγοι, seemingly ideal future, is used between the protasis and apodosis of an unreal present conditional, which is immediately followed by the aorist in-

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dicative with ἄν. In French, German, and English, unreal present and ideal are so often identical in form that we have at times had a keen suspicion that even in Greek, in spite of the sharp formal differentiation of the two, the distinction was not always plainly felt, especially as Homer's usage (§438) was likely to lead an Attic writer astray, once in a while, at least. It very seldom occurs, it is true; but the combination mentioned in §504, may possibly have some such explanation. To the two examples there given add Isoc. 4, 102, and also Pl. Phædo 108 A, where οὔσῃς=εἰ ἦν, and Rep. 504 A, where μνημονεύων=εἰ ἐμνημόνευον, the apodosis in both being optative with ἄν. §535 is an addition that we are glad to see, having for a good many years insisted on this limitation in generic sentences, and denied the application of Note 1 on page 131 of the old edition to temporal sentences. We hope some day to see Dr. Schanz's co-workers give us the statistics of Attic prose on this point. We commend it to their attention.

In the treatment of ἕως we note again the absence of a statement to the effect that ἕως in the sense of 'until' regularly has the *aorist;* with any other tense it means 'while,' usually in the sense of 'as long as.' The constructions for these two meanings are nearly paralleled throughout, and why our grammars have failed to notice that it is the *tense* that determines the *sense* of the group of words of which ἕως is the representative, we have never been able to understand. Exceptions occur, of course, but they are not common enough to upset the rule. Kühner's note on Xenophon Mem. 3, 5, 6, is a very striking example of how the distinction is ignored; for he actually tries to justify the meaning 'as long as,' which ἕστ' ἄν must there have in spite of the aorist, by referring to a passage in which ἕστ' ἄν with the same meaning is followed by the present! And Mr. Phillpotts, the editor of an excellent textbook, selections from the 'Hellenica,' in trying to make Xenophon's Greek in 2, 3, 31, a little easier, changed the tense after ἕως, without perceiving that he thereby changed sense to nonsense! The mystery is, that the grammars are so extremely careful to give the constructions in the meaning 'until,' and quietly dismiss the other meaning with the statement that it needs no special treatment, although the two, as we have said, run side by side nearly the whole way, being governed by the same underlying principles. The fullest and best statement of the usage of ἕως that we have ever seen is the one given by Professor Gildersleeve in the *American Journal of Philology*, iv, pages 416-418; but even this summary is so compact as to leave unnoticed the generic constructions in the subjunctive and optative, *e.g.*, ἕως ἄν + present subjunctive, Anab., 1, 4, 8; 3, 1, 43; Dem. 9, 69; aorist optative, Xen. Cyr. 8, 1, 44 (ἕστε). For ἕως ἄν + aorist subjunctive, unless we count Xen. Mem. 3, 5, 6, and ἕως + present optative in generic sentences, we have no examples to give, but we have never made any point of collecting them, as they would simply be illustrations of broad principles of Greek syntax.

Under the head of "Wishes" we wish notice had been taken of βουλοίμην ἄν and ἐβουλόμην ἄν. It happens that βουλοίμην ἄν is not indexed, and § 246 contains no cross-reference to § 236 (end), where we have, in less than a line, all that is said about βουλοίμην ἄν, so far as we have discovered. As to ἐβουλόμην ἄν, we should like to ask if it is not far more common in Attic prose than εἴθε or εἰ γάρ with the secondary tenses of the indicative. We have made no sort of count of the constructions, and speak only from general impressions, and subject to prompt correction. In § 840 there is no statement of the ordinary limitation of the future participle expressing purpose. Except after verbs of motion, ὡς must usually be prefixed (παρασκευάζομαι being a prominent exception, since it may omit the ὡς). For this reason we should be glad to know how far μένουσιν ἀκουσόμενοι in § 187 is upheld by classic usage.

The make-up of the 'Moods and Tenses' is, of course, what might be expected of the house that issues it, and for a first edition it seems to be remarkably free from typographical or other errors. In § 25 πείθουσι ὑμᾶς holds its own with remarkable persistency in the various editions of the 'Moods and Tenses' and of the Grammar, though in the later issues of the latter book the ν has been added. For εἶσι in § 159 (*c*) read ἔρχεται. The example from Ar. Lys. 511 in § 162 appears without the conjunction "that" after "hear"—an oversight which occurs in the former editions of the book, and also in the Grammar. On page 143 the late form ἐλοῦμαι is twice given, rather strangely. The same paragraph has δῷ three times without accent, and the next page has δῷ twice without it. On pages 150, 3, and 156, 2, we think καί must have fallen out after εἰ; and a brief paragraph might well have been given to εἰ καί and καὶ εἰ, in regard to which we may observe that Jowett, in his volume of notes on Thucydides, insists very rigidly on the distinction between the two expressions, without observing his distinction by any means in his translation—for the very good reason that it cannot be done.

Several excellent features yet remain to be noticed. The cross-references are unusually abundant. The use of "Notes" and "Remarks" has been entirely discarded, the paragraphs being consecutively numbered instead; so that while the preceding edition had only 114 sections this one has 926. This makes reference to the book a simpler matter. Would it not have facilitated reference if the paragraphs of examples had been lettered, so that a reference to a construction might be more precisely given? The frequent citation of authorities is an extremely valuable feature, and one to be heartily welcomed. The aid and stimulus thus given to students who have scholarly aspirations is of very great worth. In future editions we should like to see an index of proper names. This could easily be added at the end, to form page 465. Few indeed are the books that are over-indexed, and we do not think the addition of this page would overdo the matter, or leave much to be desired in this capital book.

FARMER WASHINGTON.

George Washington and Mount Vernon. A collection of Washington's unpublished agricultural and personal letters. Edited, with an introduction, by Moncure Daniel Conway. Brooklyn: Long Island Historical Society. 1889.

THIS volume of letters of Washington to his overseer at Mount Vernon has a peculiar interest both as regards the writer and the period at which the letters were written. It has long been known that this correspondence was in possession of the Long Island Historical Society through the generosity of its former President, Mr. James Carson Brevoort, but access to it has been granted grudgingly, and special care taken to prevent the publication of even paragraphs. Now the Society has seen fit to publish the whole under the editorship of Mr. Conway, who has prefixed an "Historical and Genealogical Introduction," and added some newly discovered letters from other sources.

With all due respect to the zeal and industry of the editor, we find his introduction neither historical nor genealogical. With a fine-tooth comb he has searched Virginia for bits of unpublished matter, stray anecdotes that still exist in the old regions of that State, as rich in lore as it is in imagination, and the gossipy tales of the oldest inhabitants. He has gathered half-a-dozen curious pieces of correspondence, an even less number of valuable documents, and has surrounded them with a mass of guesses, improbabilities, and idle tales. For example, a very early letter beginning "Dear Sally," "may have been" addressed to Sarah Ball, Sarah Jones, or Sarah Conway, but we do not see that the subject is made any the clearer by this triple conjecture, and no interest is added to the letter. Boucher asserts that Washington was taught by a convict servant, which leads Mr. Conway to say, "The sexton of Truro parish in 1747 was a convict, William Grove. It may be that 'Hobby' was this man's nickname, and that he had previously taught the Washington children; or, 'Hobby' may have been another of the 'convicts'—probably political." He then shows that Hobby was sexton at Falmouth, and not at Truro; and yet it is only a tradition that gives to Washington Hobby as a teacher. Such conjecture only leaves the question an open one, and is better calculated to mislead than to confirm.

Were these isolated instances, it would not be necessary to direct attention to them; but they are unfortunately typical examples of the manner in which the editor has prepared his introduction. He takes up the question of seals used by Washington, but comes to no conclusion, and it is difficult to arrange his statements in such order as to show what he wishes to prove. He hazards a new guess at the source whence Washington drew his "Rules of Civility," but the guess throws no light on the matter. The wretched doggerel found in an early note-book of Washington's is boldly attributed to him, twisted into an acrostic, and gravely made the text for some remarks on the early loves of Washington. While it would be equally venturesome to assert positively that Washington did not perpetrate the acrostic, it is reasonably certain that poetry was entirely wanting in his nature. In the genealogical field Mr. Conway's researches have produced better results, though Mr. Waters's discoveries discredit the earlier statements. The letters in the appendix contain some good matter, but they have no connection with the Mount Vernon correspondence, to which we now turn.

Once a week Washington expected from his overseer at Mount Vernon a full report of what was done on the farm, the prospects of the crops, the preparation of fields, and the distribution of labor; and once a week he wrote in full his wishes and suggestions. It is this weekly letter from the President of the United States, in an exciting period of our national history, 1793–1796, that makes up this volume. Not only does it show the intense love of the man for agriculture and his home, Mount Vernon, but it proves his love of minute detail, his mastery of little things, and his capacity for applying general rules—mental habits that had stood him as well in the management of his army as in that of his plantations. He knows every acre of his farms, the uses to which they are to be put, their relations to one another as well as to his general plan of culture; he knows every field-hand and his capacity, and expects the utmost result from his labor; every fine horse or jack is known by name, and he can estimate

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what in an ordinary season he may expect from the whole. This is an interesting phase of Washington's character; but the letters are of far greater interest as showing the change that had occurred in Virginian agriculture during the Revolution.

Before the Revolution the Virginian planter raised nothing but tobacco and maize.

"The cultivation of tobacco," wrote Washington to Arthur Young, "has been almost the sole object with men of landed property, and consequently a regular course of crops have never been in view. The general custom has been, first to raise a crop of Indian corn (maize), which, according to the mode of cultivation, is a good preparation for wheat; then a crop of wheat; after which the ground is respited (except from weeds, and every trash that can contribute to its foulness) for about eighteen months; and so on, alternately, without any dressing, till the land is exhausted; when it is turned out, without being sown with grass-seeds, or reeds, or any method taken to restore it; and another piece is ruined in the same manner."

Tobacco was the commercial crop of Virginia, and all the efforts of Parliament, directed by the selfish policy of the mercantile system, were directed to making it the staple of the colony. It was the planter who suffered, for he was obliged to dispose of his product in a monopoly market and buy what manufactured articles he needed in the same market. Even before the Revolution a change was begun, looking to the culture of grains instead of tobacco, and an export of wheat to the West Indies instead of tobacco to Great Britain. The experiments of Bordley in Maryland were beginning to attract attention, and Washington has left abundant evidence of his close study of such agricultural treatises as were published at that time—studies which were later to result in practice. Of live stock almost nothing was known, and horses and dogs were more important items in the plantation economy than cattle and sheep.

All this was changed after the Revolution, and nowhere can the alteration be more closely studied than in the agricultural letters of Washington. The tobacco-planter and shipper of the colonial day has become a raiser of wheat and a manufacturer of flour. He is no longer concerned with the quality of and market for his fine brands of sweet-scented tobacco, with the problem of stemming, packing, and inspecting his leaves, with the extortions of shipmasters, the sales and charges of his factor in London; but he talks learnedly of wheat, flour, bran, middlings, shorts, and ship stuffs. He cultivates only a few acres of tobacco, and the small number of hogsheads that he obtains are kept in the inspection warehouses for years awaiting a fair price, and constituting an unimportant source of revenue instead of the principal income. He no longer exhausts his lands by successive crops of tobacco, wastefully grown and wastefully gathered; but his efforts are directed to preparing his fields for wheat, the arrangement of proper rotations of crops that will keep his lands in heart, and in experimenting with different seeds to obtain the highest returns, and with various fallow crops to insure a proper degree of productiveness. He no longer pays the expenses of his plantation out of his tobacco sales, but out of his sales of wheat and flour. Under this system, even his choice of lands is modified, and a good mill-site is of far greater value than a comparatively rich plain.

In introducing this new system of agriculture, Washington had enjoyed exceptional advantages. He had covered nearly every State in his marches during the Revolution, and had been observant of the methods pursued in each. He was a careful reader of Arthur Young's 'Annals of Agriculture' and an ardent experimenter in every direction. He had seen the importance of live stock in agricultural operations, and not only sought to obtain fine breeds of cattle and sheep, but paid great attention to the sowing of grasses and laying down of meadows, besides making trials of the various root crops that were valuable both as food for cattle and for keeping the land in condition. He was familiar with the efforts of Robert Bakewell to improve farm stock, the pioneer in the line, who believed that "you can get beasts to weigh where you want them to weigh, *i. e.*, in roasting pieces and not boiling pieces"; while from his numerous correspondents, among whom were such agricultural authorities as Young, Anderson, and Sinclair, he obtained many valuable hints and much assistance.

His one obstacle to success was the quality of labor at his command—slaves; and it is an interesting speculation to make, whether slavery in Virginia could have remained had the State followed what was its natural tendency immediately after the Revolution, that of becoming a wheat-growing State; whether this form of labor, wasteful, costly, and unintelligent, would not have been forced out by the same economic conditions that had made it unprofitable in New England and the Middle States. That Washington was conscious of the difference between the results obtained by slave and by free labor respectively, these letters prove. Near Philadelphia he noted and admired the well-kept fields, and recorded with envy the large crops taken from them as compared with the relatively meagre returns made by his own lands, on which he bestowed so much thought, time, and expense. He mentioned again and again the difference in results obtained in the well-conducted flour-mills around Germantown and at the head of Elk, and in his own, where a comparatively small output was obtained. The laziness, neglect, thievish habits, and ignorance of his help bring out a show of temper on his part, and constitute the burden of his complaints. Hardly a letter is contained in this volume that does not convey some idea of the low opinion he held of slave labor, and its incapacity to meet his wants, which in short involved a change from extensive to intensive farming, a revolution in methods. "My great object (more than making crops) is to preserve the land"; but he would use every acre to its full capacity. "Is it not better to get twenty bushels of wheat (and other things in proportion) from one acre of ground, than from two acres?" This was the key of his system, and, with that at hand, these letters open up a very interesting study in American agriculture of the last century; but the editor of them has missed it all.

Clubs for Working Girls. By Maude Stanley. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 276.

WRONG as the Socialists are in their theories of human nature, they have certainly done a great deal of good in stirring up the tender-hearted to a feeling of the insupportableness of the existing conditions of the very poor, and of the necessity incumbent upon every woman, at least, who has leisure, of doing something to alleviate them. Time was when English women satisfied their consciences by doles of red flannel and soup to the poor people of their acquaintance, but now the principles of political economy have penetrated the brains of women, even, and no one can engage in relieving poverty without much reflection upon the far-reaching consequences of his acts. The Hon. Maude Stanley, in strenuously advocating the formation of clubs for working girls on a large scale, has other objects in view besides furnishing the girls a pleasant evening and some improvement in their manners and their minds. These objects alone would, of course, be very worthy ones, and these objects are accomplished to a remarkable extent by the London clubs which she describes. The girls include those of the very lowest classes (it is required, however, that they should be respectable)—girls, doubtless, lower than any who could be found in this country; girls who, after the day's work, are always on the street, rude, vulgar, and boisterous.

"Many of my readers may never have seen the class of girls I now refer to—girls who will roll about the pavements three or four together, their hair cut straight over their foreheads, shawls over their heads, insulting every decent woman they meet. . . . In one part of London where a club has been established they have been seen on a Saturday night fighting one with another bared to their waists; and yet even there, by the kindly influence . . . of the club, have been, may we not say? tamed and civilized."

One evening two wild girls came to the door, whom Miss Stanley presently recognized as girls she had known some years before in a school. When asked to come in, they said: "No, they are stuck-up things in there: they would laugh at us"; and the girls of the club said: "O those terrible girls! I hope they are not coming in here." But they came in, and Miss Stanley says:

"Around them were girls who had been at the same school, who lived in the same street, who had worked at the same factories: the one quiet, gentle, refined; the other coarse, loud, blasphemous, and rude. Up to thirteen the same teaching, the same training, but since that for the one the education of the streets and of bad companions, and for the others their club, their friends in the club, and the ladies of the club. No instance has ever so forcibly shown me the marvellous good that a girls' club can accomplish as the sight of these girls thus brought together. As children they had seemed alike in every respect; and now how far apart they were!"

But, besides these immediate results, Miss Stanley has no less an object in view than to transform public sentiment among the poor of London in regard to early marriages. Early marriages have not simply the result of unduly increasing population among the working classes; it is the early married who become the parents of children who are improvident like themselves, and who are, in turn, the parents of a constantly degenerating race. The first step towards thrift is to consider whether there are means at hand to bring up a family decently; and when that step has once been taken, it works doubly—by the decent bringing up and by inheritance. But besides these remoter considerations an early marriage entails immediate suffering. Miss Stanley quotes a passage from Judge Chalmers which is so forcible that we must make room for part of it here:

"I find that the almost universal cause of the indebtedness and destitution of the poor is early and improvident marriage. About 90 per cent. of the judgment summonses are against persons in the receipt of weekly wages. If the artisan would, like the majority of the more educated classes, refrain from 'going into housekeeping' till he was thirty, his lot would be an exceedingly comfortable one. For ten years he would have been in receipt of his full wages, and he could have put by a good round sum to provide against a rainy day. . . . I find that more than 98 per cent. of the judgment debtors are married. . . . Day after day I preach the same sermon to deaf ears. The defendant urges the number of his children as his reason for not paying his debts. Is it the plaintiff's fault, I ask him, that you have got seven children? Because you have got seven children, is it any reason that the plaintiff should supply you with goods for nothing? Not long ago a

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wretched-looking lad of twenty was summoned for a debt of two pounds. I asked him why he had not paid and he replied, 'All the children have been ill.' . . . The root of the evil lies in the reckless way in which the working classes marry."

Miss Stanley gives two incidents to show how differently the two races that adjoin the English regard marriage. An Irish laborer was asked, "Mike, why have you married when you had not enough to keep yourself, let alone a wife?" "Well, sure," was the ready answer, "for the bite and the sup the crater ates it's no worth being without her." A Scotch woman, asked why she and her brother, middle-aged persons, had not married, replied, "I had to stay and bide with father and mother, and my brother could not have brought a wife in; there would be no room for bairns with the old folks; he must wait awhile." The idea that children who cannot be supported are a reprehensible possession seems to be making headway in London. The wife of a man who had become blind soon after marriage, and the mother of seven children, said: "I was afraid to ask you for assistance, for I was afraid you might say what the other ladies say—that I have too many children." Miss Stanley believes that a thorough-going change may be brought about in this respect in the opinion of girls and lads. She says:

"It may seem a colossal work to change ideas with regard to marriage, but it is not impossible. Have we not seen a great change take place in the views of girls of the professional and educated classes? When they had no other employment but fancy work, tea parties, and walks on the parade or in the park, what could they think of but flirtations and possible marriage? . . . All these occupations and many more that are now opened to women, have created a very different feeling with regard to marriage. Happier marriages are made when the contract is not entered into by the girl merely to secure a home or a large establishment, and she makes a far better wife than if she had had no training or experience of work."

A similar change can be produced in working-girls, Miss Stanley believes, if they can have their evenings filled with interesting occupation during the years when they ought to be postponing marriage.

"We have now to consider how we can create this feeling among the working-girls and lads of our great towns. We can do so by giving them clubs, and letting them see that life has something in it besides mere larking folly. . . . Some of our girls have been with us for seven, eight, and nine years [it should be remembered that among the poor of London there are almost no women who do not marry], and we can say with confidence that clubs will keep girls from reckless and improvident marriages. If a girl remains single till twenty-four, she will be more likely to make a good choice, and not to take up with the first lad who strikes her fancy because he has asked her to walk out with him. Our girls have themselves told me that they consider this postponement of marriage as one of the best results of their club."

For details of management of these clubs, for an account by Miss Grace Dodge of working-girls' clubs in New York, for descriptions by the girls themselves of their clubs and of the country excursions which they make in the summer, and in particular for an account of a week spent in the New Forest by a working-girl, a lover of nature, we must refer the reader to the book itself. It is a book which one cannot read without a feeling of profound admiration for the working and the thinking that is now being done by Englishwomen for the amelioration of the condition of the unfortunate classes.

Old Country Life. By S. Baring Gould. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

If enthusiastic admiration and unwavering love of the subject-matter are the qualities which determine the man best fitted to write any given book, then surely Mr. Baring Gould is the man to treat of old country life in England—or rather Devonshire, for in the main he confines himself to that county. He quotes with strong approbation the remark of a friend that, "as in all the world there is not a type of man nobler, better, more complete in every way than the true English gentleman, so do I think that nowhere—not approachably even, anywhere—is there to be found a house like the old English country house." This being his creed, he cannot regard any of the changes that have taken place in the building of country houses since Elizabeth's day in the light of improvements. He prefers the trim box hedges to the modern gardens; he looks back with something of regret to the old hunting and drinking country parsons—of whom, however, he tells some unpleasant tales; and he believes the great socialistic revolution will not take place in England till fox-hunting, "that great solvent of all prejudices," is abolished. A most enthusiastic fox-hunter, indeed, is Mr. Gould, and he solemnly declares his belief that the conscience of the wretch who shoots a fox must sting him more than if he had committed a fraud!

Readers who have a more or less clearly defined idea that on the whole the world is becoming better rather than worse, may feel disposed to quarrel with the mental atmosphere of the book, and to laugh at the somewhat unscientific view of the social questions with which it incidentally deals; but nevertheless they will find in it much curious and interesting information. How remarkable, for instance, is the absolute disappearance of so many of the old Devonshire families. At intervals, between 1531 and 1620, the heralds visited the county in order to enroll such families as had the right to bear arms, and it appears that out of one hundred and twenty-four names on these lists under the first three letters of the alphabet, only eleven remain in existence. At an assize in Exeter in 1660, when Matthew Hale was High Sheriff, the entire Grand Jury, numbering about twenty, and all men of substance, bore the name of Hale, and yet to-day there is no trace of such a family. Mr. Gould cannot account for the fact, but he refers elsewhere to what is most probably the true reason, namely, the tendency of country people to move into towns in these later days of educational activity. An examination of last year's London directory in support of this hypothesis results in the discovery therein of eighteen out of the twenty-seven names which Mr. Gould mentions at page 9 as having disappeared from Devon.

It is claimed that the English used to be a dancing and a musical people; that in the time of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth England was in advance of the Continent in musical matters; and that while the Puritans tried to stop all music, they did not succeed, for in Pepys's time we find music and dancing on every hand. Pepys, indeed, constantly refers to musical evenings at his house, and to the fact that all his servants were able to take part in these performances. In accordance with his general theory of cause and effect, Mr. Gould considers that the present musical inferiority of England is due to the abolition of the old country church orchestras, and the disappearance of the old village ballad singers; but others, less attached to antiquity, might argue that the English musical taste clings to the simpler forms of harmony, and cannot attain the more complex results of German inspiration.

All who are interested in old houses, old gardens, old furniture, old portraits, and weird stories connected with them, will enjoy this book and most of its illustrations; and they will probably overlook various old grammatical errors that seem to have escaped the attention of the proof-reader.

The Uncollected Writings of Thomas de Quincey, with a preface and annotations. By James Hogg. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

Mr James Hogg, who was an editorial companion and friend of De Quincey towards the end of the latter's life, has collected in these two handsome volumes various miscellanies which have hitherto escaped the *omnium gatherum* of the publishers. They are upon metaphysics, politics, literature, political economy, and education, in the way of criticism, and comprise, besides, some translations of German fiction and a long story by the author called 'The Household Wreck.' This last is the most important piece; it has the peculiar touch of De Quincey, reads like a bad dream, and is noticeable as belonging to a style of fiction which has passed away, resembling the early work of Bulwer and Poe in the handling of word and phrase. The remainder of the collection is of the same stuff as the voluminous works of the author, with nothing new in thought or powerful in expression. De Quincey was already sufficiently represented, and these additions can only burden the weighted shelf; they are in part reviews of not notable works, letters of a controversial character upon questions of the Malthusian and Ricardian economy now exhausted in discussion, or upon Kantian metaphysics elsewhere better explained, or passages upon the English in India or China in which alone we find instances of his impassioned rhetoric. One early paper upon Greek literature maintains the superiority of modern writers, especially of Chaucer over Homer in picturesque and narrative power, and of the English orators over the Greek; in nearly every department the ancients are decided against, and in the case of Pindar the poet is simply critically annihilated. This is interesting, but it is not enlightening criticism. The general qualities of the author, his subtlety, pedantry, and scholastic arrogance, his rambling of the mind, his diseased imagination and meretricious rhetorical style, are all discernible: but the matter was long ago dry and dead. De Quincey seems to us to have been overestimated in his own day, so far as the mass of his work is concerned, and to live now as the typical opium-eater and by virtue of a half-dozen remarkable imaginative tales and splendid "purple patches" of English. In them his fame lies, and none need seek it further in these "leavings" of the complete works.

Emigration and Immigration. By Richmond Mayo Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

The general question which Prof. Smith puts to himself is, What effect will the constant infusion of new blood have upon the American community? In attempting an answer to this question he is led to inquire into our social ideals, and into the effect of immigration on the growth of population; on the economic condition of our laboring classes, and on our "ethical consciousness." His examination is very comprehensive, but he finds it necessary to take into consideration so many limiting and qualifying circumstances that his positive results are not very clear. The end to be attained is such control of immigration "that elements incompatible with our civilization

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shall be excluded ; that the defective and delinquent classes, who are only a burden and a danger to us, shall also be excluded ; and that the immigration shall not be on such a scale as to threaten the integrity of our political institutions, or to cause economic disturbances." But we are not informed how this last result can be obtained, and as to the others the only practical suggestions are that the present laws against the importation of paupers, etc., and against the importation of laborers under contract, should be more rigidly enforced, and that the work of inspection should be transferred to our consuls.

We are not prepared to give our assent to this proposal. It would involve a large expense which should hardly be paid by our Government, and which, if collected from those immigrants certified as desirable, would reduce the slender capital which is so essential to a successful start in their new life. Nor, since our consuls would be dependent upon information furnished by foreign Governments, are we satisfied that oppression would not result. The consular inquiry would be notice to the local authorities as to the persons who intended to emigrate, and in fact Prof. Smith declares that it would be our duty to assist foreign Powers "in their efforts to prevent the evasion of services due the State." In other words, we are to coöperate with military despotisms in the maintenance of their oppression. It is obvious that under this system political offenders would find no refuge here, and our Government would be compelled to reverse its traditional and not altogether inglorious policy. To refuse hospitality to a Kossuth or a Garibaldi would rouse the whole country and upset the strongest Administration.

But while Prof. Smith's conclusions are not particularly novel, the information that he has collected is interesting and well arranged. He points out many conditions that affect the problem and are generally overlooked. Thus, it is commonly supposed that emigration relieves over-population; but, as a matter of fact, the natural increase of the race tends at once to expand into the vacuum. Again, the immigrant is looked upon as adding to the wealth of the country because he brings some capital with him; but, on the other hand, he remits large sums to relatives and friends in his native land. Perhaps the most suggestive chapter in the book is that upon the economic gain by immigration, as to which the author is inclined to adopt a very moderate estimate. It may well be, he shows, that such an influx of unskilled labor as we now behold is as injurious in some ways as it is profitable in others. We are unable to determine from the figures presented here that any deduction from the gross number of alien immigrants is made on account of remigration. This is a very material point, and deserves careful study, but it is doubtful if our statistics throw much light upon it.

God in His World: An Interpretation. Harper & Bros.

We have here plenty of loose thinking and of vague expression, and, nevertheless, an interesting book, written, for the most part, in a style that fascinates not only by its pleasant cadences, but also by its remoteness from the common speech of men. In no respect is it more remarkable than in its frequent surprises of good common sense at moments when we seem to be in regions never visited by it. There are floating echoes of Swedenborg and other mystical writers, but they vanish softly and quickly as they came, and leave us still in doubt how we shall class a book that is so striking in its individual quality.

Many will be deterred by the author's assurance, at the outset, that his book has been "written without previous design as to its undertaking or shaping," and is "not the result of any striving after truth." As we go on, however, we are persuaded that the author has been more deliberate than he imagines, though some of his facts are of the genus of the German's camel. Only in Emerson and Marcus Aurelius shall we find so much praise of Nature, and nowhere else the term so persistently used with so little definite meaning. A faith in Nature so ample makes the supernatural impossible, but it does not prevent—suggesting here the naturalism of Dr. Furness and the late Dr. Clarke—a full acceptance of the New Testament miracles as historic facts. Nature is not reversed, but completed, in Jesus; is for the first time fully comprehended in him, and culminates in his resurrection.

Such failure to distinguish things that differ is an evil sign, but the reader who should allow it to discourage him at the outset would miss a very great number of admirable reflections. It is in these that we are to look for such spiritual value as the book contains, not in its general scope, if any such can be discerned. There is also something charming in the author's occasional naïveté, as for example (p. xxviii., Introduction): "The constantly recurring resurrection of the dead would be regarded as natural. How, then, can a single case be called supernatural?' And this on p. xxix.: "The scientific denial of the resurrection of Jesus rests on the basis of its singularity. If in the course of all astronomical observation but a single comet had been observed, and that two or three thousand years ago, the fact would be denied on the same basis." Nothing is said of the quality and contemporaneousness of the evidence in either case. Surely the naturalness of Jesus would smell as sweet by any other name—for it is a name emptied of all its proper meaning—when it is thus interpreted:

"He was human, but there was no miracle so impressive as the fact that being human he yet reversed all the processes of a universally perverted human nature. He spoke our speech, but in his utterance all the ordinary currents of human thought gone wrong and turned awry were reversed, so that his sayings contradicted every maxim of human experience, even as does Nature when we comprehend her divine meanings."

An introduction in twenty-one sections resumes, as dimly as an overture the following symphony, the three books which follow: "From the Beginning," "The Incarnation," and "The Divine Human Fellowship." The first of these treats with extreme vagueness of the pre-Christian religions. Where least is known, as in the Eleusinian mysteries, the writer is the most at home, valuing these mysteries above all other products of the Hellenic mind. There are many passages in the second part that are in striking contrast with the traditional interpretations. This for one: "It is one of the limitations of the Incarnation that it cannot manifest that wherein our Lord's Sonship differs from ours, but only its likeness; and while this likeness is so fully revealed, . . . the unlikeness is carefully veiled and guarded." The doctrines of Atonement and Eternal Punishment meet with no favor here. But few of our Presbyterian friends have discovered such a short and easy way out as this: "Who shall say that because a few are chosen all will not be saved? Is it not rather true that because of the chosen there is the greater hope for all?" This also is of interest: "The freedom of the kingdom is a freedom from ethical obligations—from what the world calls conscience." But this only means that

> "Love is an unerring light,
> And joy its own security."

In his concluding part, the author's ideal society is based upon the communism of the first disciples. The estimate of modern society illustrates the author's irrepressible inclination to bear the other side. In this "mystery of ungodliness" he discovers some redeeming traits, but the organization of charity is not one of them. Meantime the faith of the kingdom "is not in the strife against worldliness, nor in an amelioration thereof, or in any attempts to reform it." With so much of paradox and futility there is, nevertheless, much of pungent criticism and suggestion for the reader who can keep a patient mind, and all is very sweetly said. That such a book should now appear is one of many interesting and pathetic signs of the immense disintegration and unrest of our time.

The Colonial Copyright Acts. With an introduction by Frederic R. Daldy. London and New York: Published for the Copyright Association by Longmans & Co. 1889. 8vo, x., 135 pp.

The questions arising out of the copyright relations between the British colonies and the mother country are of considerable interest, and Mr. Daldy, who is the Honorable Secretary of the Copyright Association, and who was a member of the Copyright Commission of 1878, and otherwise has had special opportunities for obtaining a good insight into the nature of the difficulties in relation to literary property which have vexed England or her colonies for the last fifty years, was well qualified to give an intelligent opinion concerning them. It is a disappointment, therefore, to find in the book no expression of his own views regarding the copyright legislation of the colonies. He has contented himself with making a bare compilation of the copyright statutes, and with pointing out, in the introduction, some of the discrepancies existing in the various laws authorizing the importation into the colonies of foreign reprints. Such a compilation of colonial copyright law is not unwelcome, however, for these laws are by no means easy to get at, as they were passed at different times during the last fifty years, and are hidden away in the statutes at large of nearly thirty different colonies.

The volume contains, in the first place, the "royalty" laws, as they may be termed, of twenty colonies, providing for the importation of foreign reprints of books by British authors, upon payment of duties, which are, in whole or in part, to go to the authors of such books, to compensate them for the loss of copyright royalty. These acts, which were all passed under authority of the Imperial Act of 1847, 10 and 11 Vict., chapter 95, are printed without other annotation than a statement of the dates of the imperial orders in council under which they came into operation; but, following them, are printed in full four of these orders in council relating to the acts of New Brunswick, Antigua, Saint Lucia, and Trinidad. Just why these four particular orders were selected for printing and the other sixteen omitted, is left to conjecture, no reason being apparent and none being stated.

Some questions will arise, also, in regard to the statutes which have been printed. Thus, the Jamaica act of 1851 is omitted, while that of 1856 is printed; but both these statutes were superseded by the act of 1858, which is not

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printed, and to which no reference is made, although this act alone is included in the revised "Statutes and Laws of Jamaica," compiled by one of the puisne judges and the Attorney-General, and intended to contain only such acts as were then (1874–1877) in force; while the acts of 1851 and 1856 are excluded from the book, clearly showing that the compilers considered these latter acts as inoperative. The Saint Vincent law of 1852 is set out in full, but no mention is made or notice taken of the later law of 1864. The Prince Edward Island act of 1848 would seem to have been passed on August 31, and not on May 4, of that year, and it was reënacted on April 29, 1861, and this latter text ought to have had preference. The first Canadian royalty act of 1850 is given, but this statute was reënacted, with amendments, in 1868, and this text, which would be subject, probably, to the provisions of the new customs act, chapter 33 of the Revised Statutes of 1887, is the one which should have been printed.

In the second division of the volume, under the heading "Local Copyright Acts," are reprinted the Victoria statute of 1869, the Canada act of 1875, and the statute of India of 1847; the last as amended by subsequent legislation. In the introduction it is asserted that the laws contained in the book, together with the Imperial Copyright Acts and the Berne International Convention, "are the only acts affecting copyright in the British Dominions." But this certainly cannot be the case, for New Zealand passed a copyright law as early as 1842, which we believe to be still in force; and in 1877 that country enacted an elaborate law for the protection of works of art. Nova Scotia, also, passed a copyright law in 1851, and has reënacted it in 1859 and 1864. The Cape of Good Hope passed a copyright law in 1873, and New South Wales in 1879, and these laws are certainly still in force, though they are all omitted from the book under notice. And as for Canada, the act of 1875, printed at pages 115–124, was superseded, of course, by chapter 62 of the "Revised Statutes," enacted in 1886, and assented to by the imperial act of 49 Vict., chap. iv., of June 2, 1886, to go into force in 1887; and that chapter should have taken the place of the law of 1875 in Mr. Daldy's book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allinson, F. G. Greek Prose Composition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Arey, A. L. Laboratory Manual of Experimental Physics. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Aristophanes. The Birds. Part I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Arten, Y. L'Instruction Publique en Egypte. Paris: E. Leroux.
Aunt Nabby, her Rambles, her Adventures, and her Notions. 2d ed. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.
Beach, C. F., jr. The Modern Law of Railroads. 2 vols. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Berdoe, E. Browning's Message to his Time. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Boole, Mary. Logic Taught by Love. Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son.
Browning, Robert. Principal Shorter Poems. D. Appleton & Co.
Cable, G. W. The Negro Question. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. Revised ed. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Church, Prof. A. J., and Seeley, R. The Hammer: A Story of Maccabean Times. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Conder, Major C. R. Palestine. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Corneille, P. Horace. Wm. R. Jenkins.
Crane, O. T. The Samaritan Chronicle; or, The Book of Joshua. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Desart, Earl of. The Little Chatelaine. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Dinners, Ceremonious and Unceremonious. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.
Djambek the Georgian: a Tale of Modern Turkey. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Earl, A. G. The Elements of Laboratory Work. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.40.
Easter Day. Illustrated by Frank Bindley. Marcus Ward & Co.
Edkins, Rev. J. Evolution of the Hebrew Language. London: Trübner & Co.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,

NEW YORK.

LATELY PUBLISHED:

BALDWIN'S (J. M.) HANDBOOK OF PSYCHOLOGY—SENSES AND INTELLECT. $1.80.

FYFFE'S (C. A.) MODERN EUROPE, Volume III. This completes the work, which is in three volumes. $2.00.

GOETHE'S HERMANN AND DOROTHEA. An improved edition from new plates. Notes by E. C. F. Krauss. 30 cents.

GOODELL'S (T. D.) THE GREEK IN ENGLISH. A new and enlarged edition from new plates. 60 cents.

JAGEMANN'S (H. C. G. von) FOQUÉ'S UNDINE. Edited, with an Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary. 80 cents.

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PACKARD'S (A. S.) ENTOMOLOGY FOR BEGINNERS. For the use of Young Folks, Fruit-Growers, Farmers, and Gardeners. $1.40.

REMSEN'S (I.) INORGANIC CHEMISTRY. (American Science Series, Advanced Course.) $2.80.

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SEIDENSTICKER'S (O.) GERMAN SCIENTIFIC MONOGRAPHS.
No. 1. Goethe's Naturwissenschaftliche Arbeiten. Von H. Helmholtz. 30 cents.
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